

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XX
NUMBER 6

JUNE, 1912

WHOLE
NUMBER 196

VERBAL TABOOS

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A taboo, in the words of the dictionary, is a prohibition laid by primitive peoples upon certain objects or acts. It is a ban, curse, or interdiction, of such a character that anyone who touches the tabooed object or performs the tabooed act, is liable to a penalty. Among different races the taboo is applied to many different things, as to persons, implements, places, food, and garments; but the most interesting phase of it, at any rate the phase to which I would here direct special attention, is its application to spoken words. The general character of this kind of taboo is thus indicated by Tylor in his *Early History of Mankind*:

A man will not utter his own name; husband and wife will not utter one another's names; the son- or daughter-in-law will not mention the name of the father- or mother-in-law, and vice versa; the names of chiefs may not be uttered, nor the names of certain other persons, nor of superhuman beings, nor of animals and things to which supernatural powers are ascribed.

From the many examples of such taboos in Tylor's work, the following, quoted from the Jesuit missionary Dobrizhoffer, is perhaps the most significant:

The Abiponian language [the Abipones were a tribe of South American Indians, now extinct] is involved in new difficulties by a ridiculous custom which the savages have of continually abolishing words common to the whole nation, and substituting new ones in their stead. Funeral rites are the origin of this custom. The Abipones do not like that anything should remain to remind them of the dead. Hence appellative words bearing any affinity with

the name of the deceased are presently abolished. During the first years that I spent among the Abipones, it was usual to say *Hegmalkam kahamatek*? "When will there be a slaughtering of oxen?" On account of the death of some Abipone, the word *kahamatek* was interdicted, and, in its stead, they were all commanded, by the voice of a crier, to say *Hegmalkam negerkata*?

In like manner, the writer goes on to say, were prohibited the words for crocodile and tiger because in the Abiponian language these words bore some resemblance to names of persons who were recently deceased.

A custom at once so inconvenient and so irrational, one usually thinks of as existing only among primitive races; it is interesting, therefore, to note that the same practice or something strikingly akin to it, prevails in the most highly civilized communities, where interdictions—not to speak of bans and curses—are imposed as arbitrarily as they were among the Abipones. An illustration will help to make this clear.

Of the books that have appeared within the past three decades in this country and in England, a considerable proportion have dealt in whole or in part with the subject of English usage. One of these, entitled *Don't*, which came out in 1883 and passed through many editions, consisted of a series of prohibitions laid upon various acts and customs under penalty of exclusion from polite society. So far as its interdictions dealt with such matters as eating peas with one's knife or wearing a dressing-gown at an evening party, that is, so far as they were a reflection of current social opinion, the book was not especially noteworthy; but several of its mandates, especially those regarding matters of English usage, went beyond this limit. The following examples will illustrate:

Don't say *vest* for *waistcoat*;

Don't say *rubbers*, say *overshoes*;

Don't say *sick* except when nausea is meant.

Prohibitions such as these do not differ materially from those noted above; that is, they are arbitrary commands to cease from the use of certain words that are common to a whole nation. These prohibitions are, then, verbal taboos of the civilized type.

Other examples of the verbal taboo may be found in the once

* The *International Dictionary* still taboos *vest*, although *waistcoat*, the only alternative, is to the great body of Americans as bookish as *glebe*.

highly popular writings of Richard Grant White. From the twenty-third edition of his *Words and Their Uses* I quote the following passages:

Restive means standing stubbornly still, not frisky, as some people seem to think it does. A restive horse is a horse that balks [p. 152].

Presidential. This adjective, which is used among us now more frequently than any other not vituperative, laudatory, or boastful, is not a legitimate word. Carelessness or ignorance has saddled it with an *i*, which is "on the wrong horse." . . . The proper form is **presidential**, as that of the adjectives formed upon **tangent** and **exponent** is **tangential** and **exponential**. **Presidential**, **tangential**, and **exponential** are a trinity of monsters which, although they have not been wholly lovely in their lives, should yet in their death be not divided [p. 217].

Stand-point, whatever the channel of its coming into use, is of the sort to which the vulgar words **wash-tub**, **shoe-horn**, **brew-house**, **cook-stove**, and **go-cart** belong, the first four of which are merely slovenly and uncouth abbreviations of **washing-tub**, **shoeing-horn**, **brewing-house**, and **cooking-stove**, the last being a nursery word, a counterpart to which would be **rock-horse** instead of **rocking-horse** [p. 232].

In other places Mr. White attempts to taboo the use of **telegram**, **reliable**, **depot for station**, **railroad for railway**, and **to observe** in the sense of **to remark**.

Of more recent works on English usage a little book entitled *The Verbalist* has had perhaps the widest circulation. It contains many examples of the taboo. The reader is forbidden to use **all the same** for **nevertheless** (p. 6), **I have all of them** for **I have them all** (p. 6), **consider** in the sense of **suppose** (p. 54), **a bad cold** for **a severe cold**, and **lunch** for **luncheon**. The author even interdicts the use of **done** in the sentence, "He did not cry out, as some have **done**, against it," which should read, he says, "He did not cry out as some have, against it."

A work by Mr. G. M. Tucker entitled *Our Common Speech* also contains interesting examples. Mr. Tucker would eliminate from the English vocabulary the verbs **dissever** and **unravel** and the adjective **lesser**. **Preposterous** he thinks should be used only in its etymological sense of **hindsight-before**, never in the sense of **absurd**. A like judgment is passed upon the adjective **impertinent**.

An impertinent remark [says Mr. Tucker] is one that has no connection with the matter under discussion. But the use of the term ought not to be thought to imply any censure on the good manners of the speaker referred to,

for the most courteous person in the world makes an impertinent remark whenever he introduces a new topic of conversation. To call a person "impertinent," in any case, is to "mix" things badly. A person can no more be "impertinent" than he can be irrelevant or disconnected [p. 23].

More significant than the foregoing, because coming from a more authoritative source, are the taboos published by the late Professor A. S. Hill, of Harvard University, in his school textbooks, *The Foundations of Rhetoric* and *The Principles of Rhetoric*. If we obey the injunctions of these books, we shall no longer speak of anything as being a **success**; we shall speak of it as being **successful** (*Foundations*, p. 52); we shall cease saying an **editorial**, and in its place say an **editorial article**, or a **leader** (p. 59); we shall not think of the barn as being **back** of the house, but as being **behind** the house (p. 143). According to Professor Hill we must not say "The United States is a nation," we must say "The United States **are** a nation." The preposition "onto" (or "on to") is strictly forbidden. It is wrong to say "We climbed out of the window onto the roof of the porch." Instead the sentence should read "We climbed out of the window on the roof (or to the roof) of the porch." **To gesture**, according to Professor Hill, is a verb which is not a verb (p. 115). The sentence: "A beautiful doll came out and gestured solemnly," is corrected to read: "A beautiful doll came out and gesticulated solemnly." Finally, the verb **laundered** is condemned (*Principles*, p. 34) as a vulgar substitute for **washed and ironed**.

The number of recent books of this class is so great that it would be easy to fill the remainder of the paper with their titles and their lists of prohibited expressions.¹ But the examples already cited are sufficient, I trust, to make clear the general nature of the phenomenon under discussion. I wish now to inquire into its origin. Why should any user of the English language

¹ I may add the following interesting comment on *had better*, taken from a brightly written little handbook intended as a guide for the reporters and copyreaders of a leading metropolitan newspaper: "This expression for 'would better' or 'might better,' as in 'I had better starve than do anything dishonorable,' although formerly of good repute, is falling into deserved disuse. 'Had starve' is grammatically impossible, and the addition of 'better' helps the case not at all. The use of 'had better' nowadays is confined to literary reactionaries and 'standpatters,' to the careless and to the ignorant."

feel called upon to vilify a harmless, necessary word such as **launder** in the sense of **wash and iron**, or **reliable** in the sense of **trustworthy**, or **impertinent** in the sense of **insolent**? What was Professor Hill's motive in endeavoring to banish from our speech the useful noun **editorial**? Why should Mr. Tucker recoil from the word **preposterous**, and the editor of *The Verbalist* from the expression **a bad cold**?

These are hard questions, even for the writers themselves. Nevertheless I will venture an answer.

Verbal taboos are the outcome of a class of human feelings to which may be given the general name "antipathies." Feelings of this class are so instinctive, deep-seated, and (usually) unreasoning that their origin is often regarded as mysterious, or at least as hopelessly obscure. They may be divided into two classes: First, normal (or social) antipathies, those which we share with the great majority of our fellows—such, for example, as the common antipathy to snakes and to disgusting spectacles; and, second, abnormal antipathies, which are peculiar to an individual and are exaggerated in intensity.

Of the second class, with which we are here chiefly concerned, the most striking antipathies are those directed against the lower animals. Shylock, it will be recalled, in excuse of his inhumanity to Antonio, says:

Some men there are love not a gaping pig,
Some that are mad if they behold a cat.

Napoleon, it is said, had an antipathy to white dogs. Dean Swift tells us that Bolingbroke, when he cast his eyes upon "a poor harmless toad," acted like one bereft of his senses. Ambroise Paré had a patient who would faint at the sight of an eel, and another who was convulsed on seeing a carp. Tycho Brahe, the Danish astronomer, abhorred foxes; Henry III of France, cats, mice, and spiders; and Marshal d'Albret, pigs. Erasmus was made feverish by the smell of fish.

Besides the lower animals, many other classes of objects have had this power to arouse unreasoning aversion. Mme. de Stael could not endure the sight of the rising full moon. It is said that Dickens had an aversion to stiff shirt bosoms, and Agassiz to pol-

ished steel. Louis XIV hated the sight of barefooted children. Disraeli had an attack of vertigo when he saw anyone chewing gum—one could wish that this antipathy were more widely dispersed—and Buffon flew into a rage if anyone put an egg on the dining table at which he sat. A king of France and a secretary of Poland bled at the nose if offered apples. And Boyle, the Irish philosopher, was overcome at hearing the splashing of water.¹

But antipathies are directed not only toward men, animals, and inanimate objects; what is more to our purpose, they are also directed against words. As Molière makes Armande say in *Les femmes savantes*:²

Par une antipathie ou juste, ou naturelle,
Nous avons pris chacune une haine mortelle
Pour un nombre de mots, soit ou verbes ou noms,
Que mutuellement nous nous abandonnons.

"Rationally or irrationally," wrote Newman to Professor Earle, "I have an undying, never-dying hatred to **is being** (in such a connection as 'the house is being built'), whatever arguments are brought in its favour." In the same spirit, Mr. William Matthews, in *Words, Their Use and Abuse*, writes regarding the word **anyhow**: "An exceedingly vulgar phrase. Its use in any manner, by one who professes to write and speak the English tongue with propriety, is unpardonable." Lowell speaks of "that abominable word **reliable**," and Professor Genung of "the wretched word **enthuse**."³ "My pet aversion," wrote Professor William James in a private letter, "is **postal card** for **post card**."

How do these verbal antipathies arise? An answer to this question may suggest itself if we consider for a moment the nature of speech and the process of acquiring it.

Speech is the system of vocal sounds by means of which men express their thoughts and feelings and hold communication one with another. How this system originated we do not clearly

¹ Most of these examples are taken from the *Popular Science Monthly*, Vol. XXVII, p. 137. I do not vouch for the statements.

² Act III, scene ii. I am indebted to my colleague, Professor J. R. Effinger, for this apt citation.

³ I do not mean to defend the use of this word, but simply to call attention to the mental attitude implied in the adjective "wretched."

know. Probably, as Wallace has tried to demonstrate,¹ it is a survival of acts and attitudes of primitive man which were the natural accompaniments of his primitive emotions. But whether this hypothesis be true or not, speech, as we now find it, is largely conventional, that is, it consists of signs which have little or no apparent relation to the things for which they stand, or the ideas which they express. Into a society employing such a system each one of us is born, and no inconsiderable part of our lives is spent in connecting together sign and idea and sign and thing in the way upon which society has agreed.

To the infant child the words of the mother or the nurse are at first, we may suppose, on a par with all other sounds that strike his attention, such as the slamming of doors, the creaking of shoe-soles, the ticking of the clock, or the rumble of wagons in the street. All are alike strange and new, and can hardly be said to be either pleasant or unpleasant to him, except in so far as they arouse (according to one authority)² a vague sense of fear. But in course of time he learns to discriminate between the sounds which come from the street and those which are made by the curious, moving, breathing objects which flit in and out of his field of vision. The sounds that these beings emit have some special reference to himself. He hears them over and over again under the same conditions, and some few, which are associated with the most intense and most habitual experiences of his little round of daily life, he soon learns by imitation to pronounce; but only by slow and sometimes painful advances does the child learn to connect with these sounds the things and ideas which they convey to his elders. His first impressions are likely to be wide of the mark. Since the words he hears are uttered under complex conditions the particulars of which he is unable as yet to distinguish clearly, the sounds may seem to him to be connected with some source of pleasure or of pain with which, in reality, the relation is purely accidental. Thus a child who is warned not to touch a tea-pot because it will burn, thereafter calls all kinds of pots, vases, pitchers, and cups, "burnies"; or, upon hearing a boy ringing a bell and being told

¹ "The Expressiveness of Speech," *Fortnightly Magazine*, Vol. LVIII, N.S., p. 528.

² Perez, *Psychologie de l'enfant*, pp. 72-74.

that it is "Donald," attaches the term "donoo" to the sound of all bells, and even to all kinds of loud and (to him) pleasing noises.

Sometimes a word becomes by mere chance so closely associated with a certain irrelevant thing that for the rest of the individual's life the sound of the word calls up a mental image of the thing. A curious example of this is seen in the phenomenon known to psychologists as pseudochromesthesia or "color-hearing," that is, the association of sensations of sound with sensations of color. Thus to a child nine years of age, examined by an instructor in psychology at Columbia University, the word **Maria** was associated with yellow, **Katherine** with red, **Mary** with white, **Wednesday** with dark orange, **Sunday** with bright yellow, **August** with hay color, **hurt** with brown, and **pert** with black. Each letter of the alphabet and each of the Arabic numerals had for this child its appropriate color.*

Other influences may operate upon the child to give to a word or expression a meaning different from that which is attached to it by his elders. If the word is hard for him to pronounce; if it is associated with persons whom he does not like; if it has a chance resemblance to another word that is connected with painful reminiscences; if it has been heard in connection with some startling experience which produced a nervous shock and left a permanent impression upon the childish mind—if any one of these things happens, the word in question may thereafter be to the child a hateful word; and this quite independently of any denotation that the word may acquire later. It may, therefore, occur, and as a matter of fact does frequently occur, that the child has personal feelings toward particular words and expressions which are not shared by the remainder of the human species. He likes certain words and dislikes other words in a quite arbitrary way. He has, so to speak, his own private vocabulary.

This personal, private attitude toward certain words may be illustrated by an experiment which I made with one of my classes. I asked each student to describe, impromptu, the images that were aroused in his mind by the word **pimpernel**, in the line from Tennyson's *Maud*,

The pimpernel dozed on the lea.

* *Psychological Review*, Vol. III, p. 92.

Since the word was unknown to virtually all the members of the class, it is obvious that whatever meaning they attached to it was a personal, private meaning, derived from its sound, from its connection with the word "dozed" in the context, or from chance associations. In other words, the attitude of the student toward the word **pimpernel** was similar to that of the infant child toward the words **papa** and **mama** upon hearing these words for the first time¹. I will quote a few of the reports:

1. The word pimpernel calls up in my mind the image of a pampered cur. He is a worthless brute who spends most of his time sleeping in the warm sunshine.

2. The pimpernel seems to me to be a small animal resembling an eel. It has short, rounded ears, and bright, beadlike eyes. As I imagine it, the pimpernel is lying half-asleep in the grass near the shore of a lake, ready to slip into the water at the slightest sound.

3. A pimpernel seems to me to be a tramp or gypsy. He lies on the bank in the sun with an old, battered hat drawn over his face.

4. I do not know what the word means, but it instantly suggests to me a small lizard covered with pimples or warts. The image flashed upon my mind as soon as the word was spoken and is still vivid and distinct. Although I never heard the word before, I seem always to have known it and to have attached this meaning to it. I am absurdly confident that this is the true meaning.

Other students conceived of a pimpernel as a frog, as a small deer, as a dragon-fly, and as a small tree or shrub like a prickly pear.

If it is now clear from these examples how easily verbal antipathies may arise, we have next to inquire how many words of this character are to be found in the individual vocabulary and of what classes they are.

In order to answer these questions I undertook some little time ago a rather extensive investigation, the results of which I now propose to give. In the pursuit of this inquiry about a thousand persons were interrogated, but the results given in this paper are based upon the reports of only two hundred and fifty, these reports having been selected from the total number, not with reference to their contents, but because they were written by persons in whose good faith, frankness, and powers of introspection I could put full

¹ The term "pimpernel" denotes, I need hardly say, a small red or purple flower which grows wild in some parts of this country and in England; but only three members of the class were aware of this.

confidence. Each subject was asked to make a list of the words which were particularly displeasing to him, and to state the reasons for his dislike.

Five of the subjects, or 2 per cent, after a thorough exploration of their mental furniture, could discover, much to their regret, no antipathies whatever. The same percentage prevails in the remaining reports.

The total number of words given in the two hundred and fifty reports, including repetitions, is 1,334. The average number of hated words to each individual is, therefore, a little over five.

The reasons given by the subjects for their antipathies may be classified under four principal heads. Words are disliked, first, because the sound is displeasing; second, because the spelling or the appearance of the word on the written or printed page is an offense to the eye; third, because the word when heard or read arouses unpleasing images; and fourth, because at some previous time, generally in early childhood, the word became associated with a painful incident, or with some person whom the subject disliked. The last two reasons, being closely related, may be treated as phases of a single phenomenon.

I will first consider antipathies to sounds. Certain combinations of vowels and consonants strike some ears as unidiomatic of the language. The pronunciation *progr'm* for *programme* is characterized by one subject as a barbarous combination of noises, affecting him somewhat like a grunt. It does not seem to him to be part of the English language. In the same list belong *unconscionable* and *ratiocination*. Others object for similar reasons to the participles *drunk* and *swum* in the formation of the perfect tense. "The preterite *flung*," says one writer, "does not sound grammatical to me. *Flang* is, for the instant just before I pronounce it, not only more satisfying but seemingly more idiomatic."

Another class of words is offensive because the sounds lack character. The sound of *helpmeet* is described as flat and sickish, of *grab-bag* as colorless and faded. *Amiable*, *spoliation*, and *acquiesce* have for certain persons no individuality. The word *widower* strikes several as a feminine, ridiculous sort of word. A considerable number of persons hate the plural form *women*, as being weak and whimper-

ing, though the singular **woman**, connotes for the same persons ideas of strength and nobility. It is for this reason perhaps that **woman's building**, **woman's college**, **woman's club**, and the like, have supplanted in popular speech the forms **women's building**, **women's college**, etc. It is noteworthy also that in the titles of magazines and names of women's clubs the singular in most instances has displaced the more logical plural.

Disappointment of the sense for rhythm is responsible for a further class of aversions. Thus **adjunct** and **adopt** seem to bring the writer up with a jerk. On the other hand the word **equilibrium** is felt by some to be too long. "I always start," says one writer, "to pronounce it **equil'ibrium**." The necessity of suddenly changing the accent gives me great annoyance. I never use the word if I can avoid it." A violent antipathy to **fac-simile** is explained as being due to the impression that "one end of the word is heavier than the other end." The probable reason for this appears in another report, the writer of which states that for a year or two before he heard any one use the word, he always pronounced it, to himself, **fac-smile**.

Some words are objectionable because the sound is not congruous with the sense. They are, so to speak, verbal misfits. Thus **venison**, which to most persons is fairly agreeable, has for one of my subjects a harsh, rasping sound in no way related to its denotation. **Pail** seems to several too frail and unsubstantial a term to be fitly applied to that sturdy thing, a bucket. The sound of the word **jelly** connotes for one unfortunate person a clammy, tasteless substance, and this word, if it is used at the table, takes away his desire, otherwise keen, for the article of food which it denotes.

A curious and interesting class embraces words which are offensive, not in themselves, but because the sounds call up, by association, other sounds or other words. **Chum**, for example, never fails in the case of one subject to call up the croaking of a frog. **Swallow**, for another, is always accompanied by a hollow sound. **Castor**, in **castor-oil**, invariably suggests to one writer a creaking noise, probably because the sound associated with one meaning of the word is carried over to the other meaning. **Pert**

is spoiled for one by the unfailing intrusion of the pronunciation **piert**, with which in childhood he was familiar in the provincial phrase "right **piert**." For another, **pretty** is spoiled by the intrusion of **purty**, and **larynx** by the intrusion of **larynx**. Of parasitic words there are many singular examples. **Vehicle** to one person suggests **hiccough**, possibly because he has heard the vulgar pronunciation **vehic'le**. To others **impious** suggests **imps**; **rendition**, a tearing or rending; **squeamish**, squirming. An odd association is that of **cadaver** and **skedaddle**, due apparently to nothing more than the similarity of the stressed vowels. One subject has conceived a violent antipathy to **pectoral**, because, whenever he hears it, he sees a picture of apples and plums in which the birds have pecked holes. Many persons will sympathize with one of my subjects in an aversion to **galoshes**, though not perhaps for the same reason. "This word," says the writer, "is highly offensive to me because whenever I begin to pronounce it, I have an uneasy feeling that before I am through with it I will say either **gosh** or **molasses**."

Finally comes a long list of words of which the sound is simply ungrateful to the ears. Such are **lank**, **bosom**, **succinct**, **gamut**, (offensive when spoken but pleasing in print), **sofa**, **discomfit**, **goitre** (the sound of which was disliked before the meaning was known), **emblem**, **squalor**, **squalid**, **fulsome**, and many others. The general character of such antipathies is illustrated by the following note on the word **got**: "I never use this word when I can avoid it. The sound of the **o** is unpleasant. When I open my mouth to say it I contract the muscles of my throat as if I were trying to get rid of something distasteful, and I involuntarily turn up my nose."

A second cause of aversion is found in the spelling. The cases due to this cause, though few in number, are extremely interesting.

In six instances the antipathy is due to a parasitic or phantom word, differently spelled, which starts up in the mind whenever the original word is seen in print or writing. As a general thing the phantom spelling is phonetic. The word **bellows**, for example, is haunted by the phantom **bellus**, **gallows** by **gallus**, **blood** by **blud**, **berry** by **bury**, and **victuals** by **vittles**. The way in which the phantom spelling reacts upon the original word may be illustrated

by a report on the word **beau**. This word, according to one writer, though momentarily pleasing, invariably brings with it the parasitic word **bo**, the effect of which is to make the original "intolerably mawkish."

A parasitic spelling of a different kind appears in connection with the word **dowager**—which to me, by the way, always means a dowdy woman. One subject reports that this word, as soon as his eyes fall upon it, instantly turns into **dwouager**, with a corresponding pronunciation.

Just as the sound may seem to be a mere jumble of noises, so the spelling of a word may seem to be a mere jumble of letters. Such is the word **islet** to one, the word **misled**¹ to another. **Dudgeon** seems to one writer to be lacking in a letter, though he cannot say what the letter is. The spelling of **depot** is offensive, for no ascertainable reason, to a considerable number.

A third cause of antipathies lies in the power of certain words to arouse incongruous or unpleasing images. In some cases this power seems to reside in the sound alone. Thus **girdle** and **gargle** arouse images of a disgusting, semi-fluid substance like gravy; **settle** and **fettle**, of a heavy, quivering, jelly-like mass. **Lobby** calls up the figure of a fat, coarse-looking fellow; **ma'am**, the image of a big mouth. **Grewgious**, a name which Dickens gives to a character in *Edwin Drood*, causes one of the subjects (who has not read the novel) to see a picture of a wry-faced man and to hear the sound of gritted teeth. The word **squeamish**, in several instances, brings up a mental picture of angle-worms on the sidewalk after a rain. **Yam** suggests to one a noisy ticket-seller at a circus; **snobbish**, to another, a mass of slime; **spurious**, to a third, a man kicking a small dog.

In another set of instances, a part of the word by analogy or by a kind of punning suggests some other word. Thus, **lamentable** is made ridiculous by the accompanying picture of a lamb, **melancholy**, by a picture of melons, and **surreptitious**, by a picture of a sticky syrup jar. The managing editor of a New York daily is said to have banished the word **toothsome** from the columns of his paper because it calls up in his mind the image of a large human tooth

¹ Commonly pronounced "mizzled" by young children, and taken to mean struck by a missile.

to which adhere particles of food. Avoidance of the word **mediocre** is in one of the reports traced to an aversion to the color yellow. Why the word **sort** in the phrase, "a good sort of chap," should be obnoxious, was a mystery both to the subject and to the investigator. Nor was the mystery lessened at first by the discovery that the word always evoked an image of rotten apples. Later, however, the picture was found to be of some one "sorting apples," an idea and a phrase with which the writer had become familiar in early childhood; and thus the antipathy was satisfactorily accounted for.

Another example of this round-about connection of word and image is seen in an aversion to the word **demagogue** arising from the accompanying image of a monster. The subject said that for a time he always connected the words **demagogue** and **octopus**, the latter invariably calling up a repulsive image. Later the word octopus, the middle term of the series, dropped away, leaving the image of the monster behind. Thus the demagogue, by a kind of poetic justice, became the victim of his favorite word.

Many images can be traced to unpleasant scenes or incidents in early childhood. **Delicate**, for one person, means a dirty, faded red, because a girl friend, whose dress was of that color, always spoke of it as "a delicate red." **Preamble** is hateful to a student because he read it in one of Burke's orations before he was old enough to understand it.

I have had a peculiar horror [says another writer] of the word **fled** since I was a very small child. I was once riding in the country with my parents when we passed a house which had recently been destroyed by fire. Upon asking where the people were who had lived there, I was told that they had "fled." Being ignorant of the true meaning of the word, I at once connected it with this scene of ruin and desolation. Whenever I hear the word now this unwelcome picture presents itself.

As one might expect, the greater number of images are visual; but auditory, motor, and tactile images are not uncommon. **Salubrious** calls up the sound of someone smacking his lips; **relish**, of someone sipping coffee, or of a darky eating a watermelon; **masticate**, of pigs eating from a trough. **Mackerel** causes a pricking sensation in the skin; **peculiar**, a sensation of curling and twisting; **got**, of the flesh being torn by jagged instruments; **toothless**, of having a tooth pulled; **acerbity**, of drawing the thumb across the

edge of a razor. The sound of the word **noodle** in **noodle-soup** makes the pieces of dough seem to writhe. **Snarl** gives the sensation of snarled silk sticking to the fingers; **toothsome** makes the teeth ache (possibly from association with candy).

The only word [writes a young man] which gives me what some would call "the shudders," that I call to mind just now, is the word **groin**. When I see it in print or hear it pronounced, I have the same feeling one would have when listening to the graphic description of an operation where it is necessary to scrape the bone. If anyone were to tell us of such an operation, no doubt we should say, "I can almost feel it." That is just the way the word **groin** affects me. I can almost feel it, and the peculiar part of it is that the sensation always places itself in my left hip.

The first time I ever saw the word was years ago in a newspaper article about a murder, and it told how the pistol ball entered the groin, etc. I am naturally very easily disturbed by the graphic description of any injury, and as I read it I can almost feel the pain myself; but this seemed to especially affect me; so that I never see the word now, but that I experience a peculiar and disagreeable sympathy which has made me feel a perfect abhorrence for the word. This was not due to my knowing anything about the groin as a part of the anatomy, for until today, when I looked it up, I hadn't the slightest idea where the groin is located. Therefore, I attribute the peculiar sensation the word gives me more to its sound than to any association.

Early misapprehension of the meaning of the word is responsible for several antipathies. Thus one subject for many years was under the impression that **cuticle** was a disease of the skin. Another thought that **the deceased** referred to a person who had died of some loathsome disease.

A majority of the reported antipathies are individual, that is, they are not shared by the remainder of the writers. A considerable number are shared by from three to twelve or fifteen. Only a few words rise to the dignity of public nuisances.

Of these the most interesting is perhaps the word **victuals**. Of the two hundred and fifty persons, eighty-one, or about one-third, report a strong antipathy to this word. In ten cases the aversion is so great that the sound of the word at table takes away the subject's appetite. In investigating the reasons for this antipathy, I made in the case of one student a curious discovery. Having exposed before him for a second or two a card bearing the word in question, I noted that he made no objection to it; but later, when I expressed

surprise that he had accepted the word **virtuals** without comment, the young man started. "Vittles," he exclaimed with a visible recoil. "I detest the word." "But you didn't say so when I showed it to you." "But I haven't seen it." I drew out the card and placed it before him. "Oh, vic-tu-als," said he. "That word's all right." It appeared that although the two words had long existed as antonyms in his vocabulary, he had never before discovered their relationship.

Of the total number who feel an antipathy for this word, four reject it because of the parasitic spelling **vittles** or **vittals**, eight dislike the sound, thirty-seven are subject to unpleasing images, and twenty-one are unable to assign any satisfactory reason. The images aroused are worthy of enumeration. Ten saw a mixture or conglomeration of various kinds of food; three, cold boiled potatoes; four, bits of cold food. Other images were of unclean food, food for animals, food in a garbage pail, a string of sausage, a table loaded with unappetizing food, and partly masticated bits of food in the mouth of an untidy person.

Several of the subjects ventured the opinion that the word was never used at all by educated people.¹

The hypothesis upon which I explain the origin of verbal taboos will now be easily guessed. Suppose that in childhood some one has received, from any cause, a strongly unpleasant impression of a word. Suppose that when he grows up his natural aggressiveness of disposition, combined, it may be, with the elements of vanity and self-righteousness which are the endowments of all of us, leads him to assert his own preferences and override those of his fellows. Suppose, finally, that such a person has natural gifts and industry and inclination to scholarship such that he attains to a position of some eminence and acquires the standing of an authority. If we suppose all these things to be true, and the supposition is by no means violent, we shall have no difficulty in imagining such a person as endeavoring to impose his private aversions upon the entire community. We shall not go far astray if we think of Mr.

¹ I may note at this point an aversion of my own that is shared, I find, by others to whom I have mentioned it. I do not like the word s-q-u-a-l-o-r. If pronounced "squaylor," it suggests, in any connection, the squealing of a pig; if pronounced "squahlor," it suggests a squalling infant.

White, and Mr. Tucker, and the editor of *The Verbalist*, as saying to the public, I don't like these words; I never did like them. Therefore, *you* shan't like them, or at any rate you shan't use them."

If this hypothesis be correct, we can explain by it many interdictions which otherwise would be wholly mysterious. For example, Professor A. S. Hill, in his *Principles of Rhetoric*, lays a ban, as I have said, upon the word **launder**, in the sense of **wash and iron**, on the ground that it is a vulgar substitute for an expression in good use. Now this verb, to **launder**, has been in good use in the English language for at least three hundred years. It is used by Shakespeare, by Scott, and by Swinburne, and, as far as I know, no one from the time of Queen Elizabeth down to the date of the appearance of Professor Hill's textbook has ever uttered a word of protest. Why did Professor Hill endeavor to taboo it? I do not know positively, but I can make a guess.

As it happens, certain members of my classes who know nothing about the history of the word, or the fact that any charge has been brought against it, have for it, nevertheless, a strong antipathy. One student says that the sound of **launder**

suggests someone flapping clothes awkwardly in the water. The word seems to be closely associated with the verb **flounder**.

Another writes:

Launder is a pet aversion of mine. I would go a block out of my way to avoid its use. It seems to belong to a coarse, common sort of people. It has such a harsh sound to me that hearing it always makes me wince, as when chalk squeaks on the blackboard.

Whether this antipathy and other verbal antipathies existed in the mind of Professor Hill, I do not know, but I suspect they did. I submit, at any rate, that upon such a hypothesis we may easily explain the verbal taboos promulgated by him and by the other authorities to whom I have referred in the course of this paper.

What I have been trying to say may be summarized as follows:

In certain books that have appeared within the last quarter of a century, attempts have been made to place a ban or prohibition upon well-known and much-used English words and phrases. These prohibitions, which may be termed verbal taboos from their resemblance to the taboos of aboriginal tribes, are the outcome of antipathies formed in early years while the individual is acquiring

command of speech. Such antipathies being due to the associations which naturally occur in the formation of the speech-habit are common to all persons; but in the case of most of us they are checked or repressed by a sense of deference to the feelings of others in the community. There are persons, however, in each generation who, because they are exceptionally self-assertive and aggressive in matters of language, do not hesitate to impose their personal antipathies upon their neighbors. It is from these persons that verbal taboos proceed.

Another fact which such a study makes clear is the extreme complexity of the influences which give to words their accepted meanings. Words do not spring up in the mind with their dictionary values stamped upon them. Rather they are like irregular fragments torn out of the texture of our daily experience, trailing behind them threads of various lengths and various colors. At first each individual's mental concept of a word is as different from every other individual's as his experience is different. But the recurrence of the word in a variety of contexts and under varying conditions wears off the appendages and reduces the fragment to a conventional size and shape. If, however, in a particular case, some remnant of the old, misshapen context is tough, or escapes somehow the process of attrition, then the meaning of the word for this person is different from its meaning for others, and the result may be an aversion to it.

If, for any reason, the individual aversions coincide, the word, or some meaning of the word, becomes obsolescent. This seems to have happened in the case of the word *victuals*.¹ An American dictionary-maker, intent upon reflecting current usage, would perhaps be justified in noting that the word *victuals* is *verbum ingratum* to a considerable number of readers, or at least that it shows an inclination toward the meaning "uninviting food in unattractive surroundings." I venture the opinion that to the majority of dictionary-users, such an entry would occasion no surprise.

¹The singular, *victual*, is not only inoffensive but even poetically congenial. In *Gervaint and Enid* Tennyson uses it four times in close succession with fine effect, especially in the lines,

There came a fair-hair'd youth, that in his hand
Bore victual for the mowers.

A NEW PLAN FOR A CONTEST IN PUBLIC SPEAKING¹

S. H. CLARK
The University of Chicago

We are told that the days of oratory are past. Taking "oratory" in the sense in which it is generally used, they *are* past, and we are glad of it. But the days of "public speaking" have only just begun. Today there are a hundred fields open to the effective public speaker where opportunities for "oratory" are rare. In this busy world we have no time for the formal and ornate style that we designate as oratory. Of course there are certain occasions where the polish of a Cicero might still be welcome or even demanded, but our school system is training students for the hundred and one daily opportunities rather than for the special formal occasion. We are to train the everyday speaker, not the orator.

Certainly there is a large field open for the development in our school children of the power to *gather, select, arrange, and present material in order to effect a given audience in a given way, NOW*. The very outlining of an address will often mean a favorable verdict, and that verdict may be rendered by a jury, may be rendered at the polls, or in the corners of a classroom after the teacher has finished. Our boys and girls have innumerable topics on which they gladly speak if they are encouraged—"Fraternalities in the High School," "Purity of Amateur Athletics," "Segregation," "Scholarship among Athletes." Again, they are easily interested in local politics and social problems, where the teacher is alive. Once we get rid of the conception that public speaking is something for displaying the talents of a certain gifted few and encourage even the apparently ungifted to express themselves clearly, directly, logically, and with simple manner, we have gone

¹ Stenographic report of an address given at the Twenty-fourth Educational Conference of the Academies and High Schools in Relations with the University of Chicago, April 20, 1912.

a long way to create an interest in public speaking as a practical as well as an "academic" subject. By academic I mean one that trains the powers of observation, comparison, and generalization.

I have no sympathy whatever with the high-school oratorical contests as ordinarily conducted. They are generally contests between the faculty of one school versus the faculty of another. No high school would dare take a boy and say: "You are to represent us in the next contest. Don't ask any help, don't crib, go to work and study it out." No, since it is a test of the coaches rather than a test of the work of the school, we develop a style of rhetoric and delivery meant to win, and generally therefore false in every detail.

You understand, of course, that I have no quarrel with the specialist who is engaged to give instruction in oratory in secondary schools. His work is very valuable in training the students in the use of the voice and the body, in diction and enunciation, and frequently his ideal of public speaking is not at all different from that which I am setting forth to you today. I recognize the fact, however, that the specialists in our secondary schools are in a great minority, and I am therefore pleading for an ideal that can be realized through the faculties already in existence. There is no reason why a live teacher of history, or of political economy, or of rhetoric, or even of science, possessing a knowledge of some of the fundamentals of effective public speaking, should not be a most important factor in creating interest in public speaking that should spread through the entire school. The way matters now stand, many teachers are overawed by the conception that oratory is outside of their realm through failure on their part to get the professional training in that subject. And again, the oratorical contest overawes them. When I suggest that the gathering, selecting, and arranging of material, together with its clear and forceful and simple presentation is the goal of teaching in oral composition, it becomes evident at once that wherever we cannot get the right kind of specialist there is likely to be found the opportunity for some sane member of the faculty to undertake the work.

It is just beginning to dawn even upon the college faculties that training in public speaking is an academic work, that it

combines training in rhetoric with training in logic, psychology (as applied to audiences), and forensics, and this entirely apart from the practical value of such training for the student who has to go out and mix with the world.

To encourage the work in oral composition, the University proposes an annual contest based largely on the method developed at Lake Forest University, to whom we owe a large debt of gratitude for the suggestion. The great value of this contest lies in the fact that while it does not debar the student with a particular oratorical gift, it does not discourage the thousands of other students who make up the great majority of high-school students. All of these, or nearly all, can be trained to think clearly and present simply and effectively. The chief result to be attained is to stimulate clear thinking and simple, clear expression among all students in secondary schools. We want a contest that shall represent the work of each school in oral composition, a contest to which it shall be practically impossible to send "coached" students, who represent not the work in public speaking of their home institution, but a particular teacher or teachers who have trained a promising candidate by virtually writing his oration for him—a course followed in part or in whole by nearly every high school sending representatives to public contests. This is not to impute dishonesty to the schools—far from it; it merely indicates the prevailing notion that since an opposing institution deems it right to proceed in that way another school must pursue similar methods in order to stand an equal chance.

There are certain minor weaknesses in the Lake Forest scheme which I trust we can avoid, and for that reason I am suggesting that a committee be appointed to investigate the whole matter and to report a plan which shall be put into practice next year.

Roughly speaking, then, the plan is as follows: Two or more representatives from each high school meet at the University and to them are assigned subjects as far as possible within their experience. After an hour or so the representatives are called upon to speak for four or five minutes and are judged primarily on their clearness of thinking and simple effectiveness of presentation. A given number are chosen from this preliminary con-

test who take part in the final contest the same night, the subjects on that occasion being different from those discussed at the preliminaries.

I am not attempting to describe in any detail the method pursued at Lake Forest, nor even that which we hope to follow here. If you want to know just what is going on at Lake Forest you have only to send a post card to receive full information. I am not even going into full detail of what we expect to do here. My one purpose is to bring the matter before you and to urge the appointment of a committee which we hope will be able to present a plan in the early fall that will meet with your hearty approval.¹

¹ The Conference voted to appoint the following committee to act upon the suggestions made in this address: Professor S. H. Clark, the University of Chicago, chairman; Mr. P. W. G. Keller, High School, Appleton, Wisconsin; Mr. B. G. Nelson, the University of Chicago.

REPORT OF THE TWENTY-FOURTH EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE OF THE ACADEMIES AND HIGH SCHOOLS IN RELATIONS WITH THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

NATHANIEL BUTLER
The University of Chicago

Early in the autumn of 1911, the University of Chicago inaugurated a plan of visitation in the pursuit of which invitations were sent to the secondary schools in co-operation with the University, opening to the teachers in these schools the classrooms of the Junior College for visits of inspection. This plan was explained somewhat in detail in an article by Dean Angell on "New Requirements for Entrance and Graduation at the University of Chicago," in the *School Review* for September, 1911. The purpose of this arrangement was to secure from teachers in the co-operating schools their opinions as to the degree in which the work as conducted in the Junior College classes is suitably related to the work offered in the classes preparing for college in the high schools. In response to the invitation, a good many visits were paid by high-school representatives to the classrooms of the University, and the April Conference consisted chiefly of the discussion of reports of these meetings in departmental groups on the afternoon of Friday, April 19, followed by a general discussion in a session of the whole on Saturday morning. Here follow the reports of the departmental sessions, made by the respective secretaries at the Saturday morning session.

BOTANY AND ZOÖLOGY

Chairman, H. H. PEPOON, Lake View High School, Chicago
Secretary, J. T. JOHNSON, Western State Normal School, Macomb, Illinois

The subject for discussion in this section was, "How can the courses in botany and zoölogy in the high schools and in the University be better related so that there will be an easier transition for the entering high-school students?"

The question proved to be a very interesting one and stimulated a free and general discussion in which nearly every teacher present stated frankly his views upon the present relationship between the high schools and the University. The question resolved itself into two chief points for discussion: first, the subject-matter which composes the content of the courses in botany and zoölogy offered by both the high schools and the University and, second, the methods of instruction employed by each school.

The discussions developed the fact that at present there is no uniformity of subject-matter in the present organization of the high-school courses in science. Some of the schools offer a very general course in science, while other schools specialize more or less in the departments of morphology, physiology, ecology, and taxonomy. With such a lack of uniformity among high schools it is difficult to harmonize the work of the University with the several high schools. Upon an examination of the courses in the University it is found that several variable courses are offered beginning students, all of which are more or less ill-adapted to the average high-school student. As an illustration of an extreme case, an instance was cited in which one of the beginning courses in the University was composed of students from each of the Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior classes. It is very evident that a high-school student is not well adapted to enter such a class in the University. When such conditions prevail the necessity for some sort of adjustment of courses is readily seen.

A point relating to University administration was developed in the discussion. It was observed that students entering the courses offered in the departments of history, English, mathematics, and some other courses, would receive advanced standing for some high-school work when well done, while no advanced standing was offered for science subjects. All of the professors in attendance expressed a willingness to grant advanced standing for satisfactory work. It is desirable that an adjustment be made so that science students may enter upon the same basis as students entering other departments.

ENGLISH

Chairman, J. F. HOSIC, Teachers College, Chicago

Secretary, MARIAN LYONS, Wendell Phillips High School, Chicago

In the discussion of the afternoon, four questions of general interest were taken up. The first of these was the need of the Freshman for personal guidance, as he enters the University at a time in his life when he is still too immature to make alone the choice of such courses as will be in line with his own natural aptitudes. Help in these matters was held to be difficult by reason of the size of the University, but it was suggested that greater opportunities for contact could be provided for if students were placed under the charge of the same instructor for a longer time than is possible at present. Further discussion of this topic brought out the fact that the University fully recognizes the need of closer touch between the teacher and the student and has planned to gain it in the English work by reducing the size of classes in composition and by arranging for individual conferences.

The second topic to be discussed was the kind of ability and experience needed by the instructor to whom the work in Freshman classes is given. During the first year in college the student is in a critical position; he is then in need of expert help perhaps more than at a later time. The final outcome of the thought on this question led to a motion that the conference recommend to the University that Freshman English be taught by the most experienced and most efficient teachers on the staff.

A third topic given wide discussion was the question of the effectiveness of the lecture method with Freshmen. By some it was believed that this method stood in the way of close acquaintance between the instructor and his pupils: that it was not so effective as other methods, as it called infrequently upon the student for self-expression; that the instructor who depended largely upon it, often failed to develop in himself the art of questioning. General interest was exhibited in this topic and it culminated in a resolution asking the University and high schools to submit the lecture method to some kind of scientific investigation to discover the truth with regard to its effectiveness.

The fourth point concerned the necessity of professional training

for graduates who intend to teach, since a fine scholar is not necessarily a good teacher and may be more interested in his subject for itself than in its relation to the pupil. A motion was made that the Board of Recommendation be asked to recommend for positions to teach English only those graduates who have had professional training.

Topics of minor interest discussed were the impropriety of the use of slang in classrooms, the need of more work in oral composition, and the value of modern literature as reading material.

FRENCH

Chairman, EARLE B. BABCOCK, The University of Chicago
Secretary, FRANCES R. ANGUS, University High School

Reports were made by some of those who had visited the work of the Junior College. The following points were brought out:

1. The classes taught in French were for the most part well done: the instructor knew the language that he was teaching, he had his matter well in hand, and he did not waste the student's time.

2. On the other hand classes had been observed where much time was wasted, where the instructor did not know the language, and did not have the matter well in hand. Some of the classes were taught in English.

3. Also it is often difficult or impossible for the student in the Senior College to continue his work in French (hearing and speaking it). Yet this student may be teaching French in the immediate future.

General discussion followed some of the points involved:

The teaching of French in French was warmly advocated by several present: (1) because it is absolutely due to the student who thinks that he is learning the language; (2) because it is more economical of the student's time; (3) because it gives interest to the work.

It was objected that some students desire only a reading knowledge of the language. The suggestion was made that the University have special classes for those students. Mr. Sicard and

Miss Angus had found that the reading knowledge is gained more quickly by administering the material in French. It was also stated by Mr. House that good results had been obtained by giving the early work in English, and then using French in the classroom, once the elements were established.

GERMAN

Chairman, CHARLES E. MANLEY, Englewood High School, Chicago
Secretary, E. H. SCHULZ, Lane Technical High School, Chicago

The discussion of the conference can easily be grouped under six heads:

1. Repetition of some high-school work in college: Some of the written reports that had been received from visiting teachers had objected to this feature, but the unanimous opinion of the Conference was that in the German department no such criticism could be made. Repetition was held rather advisable under certain conditions and preferable to putting a student ahead of his real ability to profit by the work of any given course. Even the reading of some high-school texts, such as Schiller's *Tell*, can be made very profitable, providing the outlook is a different one. Although this would depend upon the nature of the text and would perhaps not apply to such an elementary text as *Immensee*.

2. Entrance requirements have no doubt brought about a greater uniformity, which was thought to be better than none, though it might be somewhat one-sided.

3. A closer acquaintance between high-school and college teachers was urged as being necessary to a better understanding of existing conditions in the two schools.

4. The college course, known as German IV, was recommended as the most suitable one for the average student entering the University with two years of German to his credit, because it provides just the review of essentials necessary before broadening out into new fields.

5. Suggestion and co-operation between the two schools is a thing very much to be desired, so long as it does not take the form of minute description and prescription of methods. In connection

with this phase of the subject it was urged that instructors from both institutions get together and issue larger suggestive reading lists.

6. The question of credits given for high-school work proved an interesting one. It developed that upon certification the University will give two unit credits for two years of high-school German, but in the examination plan the questions are generally such as to require two years of preparation in high school, for which work however only one unit credit is allowed. This therefore seems to favor the certification plan. And it was the opinion of all those speaking on this topic that the one-unit plan was perhaps proper and that no more should be allowed for the same amount of work under the certificate plan.

GEOLOGY

Chairman, JAMES H. SMITH, Austin High School, Chicago
Secretary, LYDIA SMEDLEY, Joliet High School, Joliet, Illinois

In the discussion of the topic, "Is the Basis Established by College Work in the High Schools Carefully Built Upon?" Miss Marion Finney, Township High School, Joliet, Illinois, stated that there is no discrimination in the University classes between students who have taken the work in high school and those who begin the work at the University.

In a paper entitled, "Tendencies in Courses in Physiography and Factors Which Determine Them," Miss Grace F. Ellis of the Central High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan, showed that the tendency at the present time is toward the industrial and commercial aspect.

Mr. George J. Miller of the University High School raised the question: Would it not be desirable to encourage more high-school courses in geography in order to broaden the outlook in geographical lines and thus attract teachers who are more fully equipped for the work?

The following resolutions were adopted:

1. *Resolved*, That field and laboratory work offers an opportunity for university and high-school teachers to come in close personal touch with their pupils. Realizing that this personal contact vitalizes the entire work of the course, the Conference recommends that this work should not be left too much in the hands of graduate students.

2. *Resolved*, That the Conference recommends that the University teachers be requested to collect data regarding the efficiency of their pupils in order to discover: (a) What difference, if any, is found in the University between pupils who had physiography in the first or second year in high school and those who had it in the third or fourth year. (b) What difference, if any, is found in the University between pupils who had physiography for a full year in high school and those who had it for a half-year.

3. *Resolved*, That the Conference recommends that the University use its influence among high schools, to the effect that, unless physiography can be taught by one who has had training in that line, it should not be taught at all.

4. *Resolved*, That the Conference recommends that the University use its influence among high schools to encourage the establishment of a department of geography which shall include courses in commercial, industrial, and economic geography, in addition to the course in physiography.

HISTORY AND CIVICS

Chairman, H. V. CHURCH, Cicero Township High School, Clyde, Illinois

Secretary, J. H. NEWLON, High School, Decatur, Illinois

Written reports by teachers who had visited history classes in the University were read, following which other teachers who had visited classes made oral reports upon their observations. The discussion was informal but spirited, and took a wide range. It was found that the observations made by the visitors had suggested many problems, particularly as to method. The following resolutions were adopted:

1. In order to secure the personal contact with the instructor and the undivided attention so essential to students just entering the university, we recommend that Junior College classes in history be limited to thirty students.

2. Whereas the amount of collateral reading done in the high school rarely reaches a minimum of fifty pages per week even in the Senior year, we feel that great care should be taken not to overload the student with reading in the beginning of his college course. As secondary teachers we feel that greater emphasis, both in high school and college, should be put upon the character of the reading and not so much upon mere totals of pages.

3. We desire heartily to commend the manner in which the teachers in the University are endeavoring, sometimes in the face of large classes, to reach the individual student and to adapt the work to his peculiar needs.

4. We highly commend the excellent spirit that prevails between the instructor and student, especially in the Junior College. In this very important respect, if this condition holds throughout the University, there should be no great chasm between the high school and the University.

LATIN

Chairman, JOHN H. HEIL, High School, Morgan Park, Illinois
Secretary, W. L. CARR, University High School

Two papers were presented, one by Mr. Walter Johnson, of the Lane Technical High School, on "The Co-ordination of Secondary-School Latin and College Latin," the other by Miss Laura Wright, of the Lake High School, on "The Secondary School Recitation vs. The College Recitation."

The first paper took up two questions: (1) To what extent is the secondary work duplicated in the college classes? (2) Is the basis established for college classes on the part of the secondary school carefully built upon? In answer to the first it was shown that there was no duplication in subjects offered, though there were sub-Freshman classes for those who entered with only two years' credit in Latin.

In discussing the second question it was pointed out that any new class in college, whether Freshman or sub-Freshman, is decidedly heterogeneous.

The reports of the visitors of college classes indicated that this problem is being attacked from a practical standpoint. It would greatly aid if the teachers of secondary Latin could agree upon a greater uniformity in the preparation of their students for college work, at any rate upon a *minimum* of accomplishment on which the college instruction could count with absolute certainty. The writer of the paper gave some valuable suggestions in methods urging a more scientific attitude on the part of the teacher as the only means of fostering that attitude in the students.

In the general discussion which followed, Professor Miller declared his belief in the possibility of agreeing upon an *irreducible minimum*, to be required at the end of two, or three, or four years' work in secondary Latin. Miss Sabin of the Oak Park High School told of the use in this school of printed outlines giving forms, syntax, and vocabulary required for each year's work. Professor Chandler urged the value of oral work as a means of getting at Latin idiom and acquiring a vocabulary. Miss Bassett of the Parker High School told of successful work in oral composition. Professor Hale stated his conviction that the day of dictation of

colleges to schools had passed, and expressed his gratification that the college and the schools were sitting down together to talk it over, the college being more than willing to listen to the schools.

Miss Misener of Kenwood Institute insisted that, whoever was responsible for it, the reading requirement, especially in Caesar, was too great to allow for even a minimum of scientific linguistics, oral work, and other such desirable features, and Miss Zimmerman of the Marshall High School joined in the demand for a smaller requirement than four books of Caesar.

Professor Hale said that he had strongly urged the Committee of Fifteen to reduce the requirement by the omission of the last half of Book I. He made an appeal for more "insurgency" on the part of teachers, and said that one reason why teachers fail to cultivate in their students the much-to-be-desired ability to observe and think independently is that the teachers themselves are too often *bound to a book*. A scientific attitude is as desirable and as possible in elementary Latin as in elementary physical science, and this attitude involves an openness of mind toward new points of view and new terminology.

Miss Faulkener of the Faulkener Schools spoke of the danger of dwelling too much on formal syntax and urged cultivating in our students the ability to understand and translate. She insisted that the ability to read at sight is a better test than adeptness in affixing the proper names to constructions.

Miss Lewis, of Bowen High School, expressed the wish that the *three-fourths* of high-school Latin pupils who, as is shown by statistics, take only two years of Latin, might have a more attractive course than at present and this expression brought out the perennial discussion of the value of the traditional requirement of four books of Caesar as against any possible substitutes for at least a part of the second year's reading.

Miss Laura Wright's paper was a compilation of, and comment on, reports from teachers who had visited University classes. She pointed out the unreliableness of conclusions formed as a result of a single visit. In general the reports were favorable to the University instructors. On sub-Freshman work in college the reports were less favorable. Perhaps largely because of the great variation

in the pupils, the lapse of time, and the fact that usually only poorer pupils thus finish their preparatory Latin in college, the work in Cicero and Vergil classes was found not so good as that of the ordinary high-school classes in those subjects.

Three resolutions were unanimously adopted:

One offered by Professor Miller that those present should constitute a committee of the whole, each to make out for himself and try in his own school a definite outline of minimum requirements for each year's work, and report the results at the conference next year.

A second resolution, offered by Principal Swain, was that a committee of five be appointed, with Miss Sabin as chairman, to gather these individual reports by March first, and to present a combined report next April.

A further resolution was offered by Professor Miller that a committee of five be appointed to consider the advisability of a permanent organization of the Latin Departmental Conference. Professor Miller, Principal Swain, Miss Zimmerman, Mr. Johnson, and Miss Mary Lewis were appointed by the chairman.

MANUAL TRAINING

Chairman, WILLIAM J. BOGAN, Lane Technical High School, Chicago
Secretary, WILSON H. HENDERSON, Technical High School, Springfield, Illinois

The Manual Training Departmental Conference, attended by about fifty teachers, devoted the entire session to the consideration of questions suggested by the following resolution:

Resolved, That the public secondary schools should admit to their courses pupils of high-school age even when such pupils have not had all the requirements usually imposed on the elementary schools, provided the pupils can benefit by the work given in these courses.

After a prolonged discussion the resolution was passed without a dissenting vote. Three major considerations seem to have led the conference to this conclusion.

1. Manual-training teachers are vitally interested in the present movement for industrial education. They have observed that the new industrial schools are succeeding with a considerable proportion of their pupils, most of whom have been considered failures in the traditional schools.

2. This failure, in the absence of special vocational schools, results in the elimination of a majority of the children before the secondary school is reached. This raises the question whether modifying the entrance requirements of the secondary school would not give the superior advantages of a high-school education to a much larger number of children than we are now reaching.

3. There is a growing interest in the reorganization of our system of elementary and secondary schools. Emphasis was given to this point by quoting the following extract from President Judson's address delivered before the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

It seems therefore that somewhere in our system there is a wastage of at least two years and possibly more. In the first place the elementary school as usually organized implies eight grades extending from the sixth year. I do not believe that eight grades are necessary. At the most this work should be done in seven years and I think it could be done in six years. We do altogether too much teaching at that age. The primary requirement for a child in those years is that he be a healthy, happy, busy little animal. He should learn some things which he can use in the way of reading and writing and number work, and the use of his hands in various ways, and in observation. We must remember education is by no means all the result of schooling. The child gets education at home and in his total environment. Moreover his mind is improving and getting power by the mere process of growth. The school is only one therefore among the factors.

While as above stated the main resolution was adopted unanimously, at the same time it was frankly recognized that difficulty will be encountered in any attempt to work out its practical application. The phases of the subject suggested by the following questions were given especial consideration:

Should not maturity and general ability be considered important qualifications for entrance to the secondary school?

Would it not be well to extend secondary-school work downward so as to include the essentials now given in the seventh and eighth grades; and upward to include the essentials now given in the first and possibly the second year of college work, all to be made so compact and definite as to save one or more years of the period between these extremes?

Should we plan some courses with the understanding that they will not lead to college?

Will the college penalize secondary schools which adopt these suggestions?

At the close of the Conference two motions were passed:

That the Conference submit to the University of Chicago the following questions: If a careful application of the resolution as adopted should be made by a secondary school, what would be the attitude of the University regarding the credit of that school?

That the Conference recommend that the University of Chicago appoint a committee, equally representative of the University and the high schools, to work out a plan by which this resolution may be applied without affecting the standing of the high school with the University.

MATHEMATICS

Chairman, W. P. MORGAN, The Western Illinois Normal School, De Kalb, Illinois

Secretary, W. W. HART, The University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin

The Mathematics Conference was distinctly interesting and profitable. There were present about fifty persons, of whom two were members of the department of mathematics of the University. The program followed the printed official program for the meeting. The following report is a summary of the papers and discussions of the afternoon.

It was pointed out that so far as college-entrance requirements and graduation requirements are concerned, every provision seems to have been made for perfect articulation, but that the cases of failure on the part of Freshmen students indicated some flaw in the provisions. In the discussion that followed it became apparent that the percentage of actual failures in the Freshman year is no greater than in many high-grade high schools, in fact, not so great; and that too much attention was being given to the question of failures. Attention was directed to the fact that as a rule students in the University maintain the relative standing that they had in their high-school classes.

The question was raised, "Does the University require too much of the students?" This question was answered in the negative, at least so far as subject-matter is concerned. Many students who do only fair work in the high school are able to meet the University requirements and in some cases attain rather good standing by reason of their faithfulness in study. In some cases part of the

work in the Freshman year is a direct review of subject-matter that has been considered in the high school, especially in college algebra. This review was recognized as necessary by all present, because of the variety of training which students coming from many schools have had.

"Are the failures to be attributed to differences in method?"

Most of those who visited University classes in mathematics gave special attention to the manner in which classes were conducted. Surprise was expressed that so little equipment such as compasses, rulers, models, cross-ruled blackboard, etc., was provided for the elementary classes—equipment that is considered quite necessary from the standpoint of the high school. The students did not seem to exhibit the interest and spontaneity that is characteristic of a well-conducted high-school class. The instructors, showing without question entire acquaintance with their subject, gave evidence of interest in their students, and were helpful and sympathetic.

Upon one question all of the visitors expressed themselves: "Do the University instructors stimulate their students to the full use of their powers?" Do they conduct the classes in a vigorous manner, designed to call for a maximum of effort on the part of the students? Do they plan their work so as to utilize to the greatest advantage the class time and study time of the students? The general feeling on the part of those who visited the University was that the weakness, if any, in the articulation of the work in good high schools with that of the University lies here. The remarks which follow are inserted as expressing in detail this feeling of the high-school teachers. No one of the remarks was made with respect to all of the instructors visited; in the main, no direct reference was made to individual instructors.

Much that was done by the instructor could be done by the students themselves. New ideas were presented in some cases in the form of a lecture. The lectures were criticized as differing from the text in use in the class, with the result that the students, unable to grasp a rapidly given lecture, were unable to utilize their study time to advantage. The lectures were criticized as being unnecessary in some cases, as consisting of theory that is given adequately in the texts, theory which the students could well be expected to get by themselves. It was remarked that exercises

more difficult than this theory were assigned without any suggestions. In other cases, new ideas were taken up well in a modified lecture form, the class co-operating with the instructor in the development. Aside from the development of general principles, the customary plan seems to be to assign problems for solution outside of classes and to discuss these problems at the ensuing meeting. The criticism was made that this discussion of the study assignment was not always a discriminating one; that the methods used were not designed to reach the individual members of the class; that students interested in the subject would probably profit, but that others might not find themselves very uncomfortable. On the other hand, in some classes, the class period was devoted to a vigorous drill upon exercises similar to those that had been assigned, with very evident success and interest on the part of the members of the class.

The question was raised whether the high school may not be guilty of turning out students lacking initiative, and whether it may not be the function of the University to offer its advantages especially to those who have desire for and capacity to do the work as given in the University. The general feeling was that if this is the function of the University, there should be a transition from the régime of the high school, involving a high degree of stimulus from without, to the régime of the University where the stimulus is supposed to come from within the student himself. It was apparent that under the more expert instructors in the University this view is held and is reflected in their teaching procedure.

By way of summary, it is apparent, but not at all surprising, that the instructors in the University are, in cases, being charged with many of the faults and, in other cases, are being credited with some of the virtues of high-school instructors; that there is evidently need that the University instructors give attention to the methods of teaching their subject, just as there has been and is need that high-school teachers consider the same problem; that special effort should be made to get all students to do their best; that a more systematic and scientific study should be made of the cases of failure among Freshmen, to determine whether the failure is due to lack of preparation or to other causes.

PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY

Chairman, PAUL G. W. KELLER, High School, Appleton, Wisconsin
Secretary, A. C. NORRIS, High School, Rockford, Illinois

Our aim was to state briefly what a high-school teacher considers should be taught in the high-school physics and chemistry classes, and to investigate carefully and find out what the University expects of the high schools.

Mr. Willis E. Tower of the Englewood High School said that he considers the development of the pupil is coming to be more clearly recognized as the great problem. Boys and girls and not subject-matter is the first consideration in our program. Physics is largely a subject of natural phenomena fixed by exact laws and principles. Instead of beginning our subject with force, acceleration, velocity, and energy, we should get our young friends interested in the phenomena which lead up to an understanding of these more abstract terms. When you have taken a class out and dropped a brick from the highest point of the school building to the ground, and they have watched its descent, then you are ready to teach and they are anxious to study the laws of falling bodies, acceleration, momentum, inertia, impact, force, gravitation, the value of g , and kinetic and potential energy. Physics offers a chance to do quantitative experiments. We are continually asking quantitative questions in life. How old are you? How tall is this building? What horse-power has the engine? What does it cost? How much will you give me for a year's work? How much did your football team score last season? In our high-school physics laboratory we should train our boys and girls to find answers to some definite, clear-cut problems. Whether it be twenty or forty of these problems matters but little, provided the pupil does well and understandingly the ones he attempts. Quality, not quantity, is what counts in quantitative work of any kind.

Matthew F. Wadleigh of the East Division High School, Milwaukee, defined the high-school chemistry course. Commence with some common thing like water and have the class work with it. Distil it, evaporate it, dissolve substances in it, break it up with sodium and electricity, make it by burning hydrogen in air. By the time a class has studied water just a little bit, they have

had to consider many of the laws and principles of chemistry. Teach them manipulation of apparatus, the chemical names and symbols of the compounds used and met with in the laboratory of life. Have enough quantitative experiments to teach the pupils accurate and skilful manipulation. Then when the student comes to the University he will know the difference between a flask and a beaker, he will know something about ionization, the law of definite proportion, and it is hoped he will know a great deal about the common tests, the composition of water, air, foods, and other common compounds.

Mr. H. R. Smith, of the Deerfield Township High School, Highland Park, Illinois, investigated and gave a report of the demands which the University instructors are making upon the students of physics. Mr. J. W. Morrison of the Riverside Brookfield High School, Riverside, Illinois, made a similar report as regards chemistry. Both have visited the classes in the University and talked with the students. Mr. Smith prepared a questionnaire of seventeen questions, which he had the students fill out. We give one question and an answer made by one student: "Has the attitude of your instructor been one of sympathetic interest in your difficulties, or have you been left to fight your battles alone?"

I may say that I have almost never found an instructor who was not sympathetic and ready to help when I went to him with my troubles, whether in line with studies or otherwise. Oftentimes students, especially in a big place like this, hesitate to go to their instructors with their troubles. Sometimes this is due to the instructor's attitude, but more often to a natural hesitancy of the student. If there were only some way to bridge the chasm between the student and instructor it seems to me that the problems of both would vanish into thin air. In my own experience I have found that the least inviting instructor, the kind who makes your knees knock together when you think of approaching him, has always been most kind and most sympathetic.

Mr. Morrison reports the same thing true of the chemistry instructors. The "sink-or-swim" idea he finds entirely absent. If a pupil fails, it is largely on account of other things than the attitude of the instructor to the student. It may be sickness, poor preparation, lack of ability, or lack of application. In the last case, however, everything is done which can be to spur the student on to his best efforts.

This report closed with a summary emphasizing the human element in teaching Freshmen and the need that college instructors remember that even elementary matters require definition, and commending the University for its sympathetic attention to these considerations in the conduct of its Junior College classes.

At the conclusion of the reading of the reports a general discussion was held on the plan of the visitation of classes. Various speakers expressed the opinion that the visiting of University classes had been both profitable and pleasant and was a feature to be encouraged. The opinion was also expressed that it is as desirable that the University instructors visit classes in the secondary schools as that the high-school teachers visit University classes. Mr. C. P. Briggs, principal of the Rockford High School, expressed himself as in favor of inviting University instructors to come to his school and take charge of classes for a few days or even for a week if the instructors could spare the time. Such a plan was disapproved by Mr. H. B. Loomis, the principal of Hyde Park High School. He stated that he was one of the persons who resented strongly dictation of any sort from a university or college. If a weak point in his methods was pointed out to him he would consider the criticism and if he thought it just, he would take steps to strengthen the weak point. But he would not vote for any plan which provided for the taking charge of high-school classes by University instructors. An exchange of teachers was also suggested: University instructors taking charge of high-school classes, and high-school teachers taking charge of University classes.

Professor F. J. Miller said he felt certain that University instructors would be very glad to accept the invitation of high-school principals to visit their schools, but recommended that these invitations be personal.

The suggestion was made by Mr. J. F. Hosc, and favorably commented upon by Dean Angell, that in coming to the University to visit classes the teachers have in mind a somewhat definite plan or outline of what they expect to see presented, rather than coming with no particular purpose in view and simply taking things as they come.

The suggestion was also made that the heads of departments be brought into closer touch with the Freshmen. The men who conduct Freshmen classes are usually men who are new in the field, whereas the Freshman should be in charge of an instructor who has had wide experience and who is a scholar in the particular line in which he has specialized. In referring to this point, Dean Angell said that the statement in the report of the secretary of the Geology Conference that a good scholar is not necessarily a good teacher was in his judgment very true. The University recognizes the fact that the Freshman needs a particular type of instructor, and while an earnest endeavor is being made to place the so-called "juicy human beings" in charge of Freshman classes, it is also to be remembered that the number of these persons in a given department is limited—and apparently there is no limit to the number of Freshmen. As to the matter of conducting Freshman classes by heads of departments, it is not a secret that some of the heads of departments and leading professors are not even allowed to see a Freshman—men who are able scholars, but who would fail egregiously if placed in charge of a Freshman class.

As a result of the plan of visitation, it was recommended by Mr. Swain that the University of Chicago be requested to ask each one of its instructors who conduct Freshman classes to visit the classes of six high-school teachers in not less than two separate high schools in the state. The recommendation was approved.

On motion by Mr. Hosis, it was voted that the Program Committee make provision for a systematic study of the educational problems presented at the Departmental Conferences, and report them at the next Conference.

The Conference voted that the representatives of the academies and high schools on the Program Committee for next year be as follows: C. P. Briggs, High School, Rockford, Illinois; George Buck, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis; Dora Wells, Lucy Flower Trade School for Girls, Chicago; J. C. Hanna, High School, Oak Park, Illinois; H. C. Brown, New Trier High School, Kenilworth, Illinois.

LA LIGUE POUR LA CULTURE FRANÇAISE¹

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The discussion as to the cultural and practical value of classical study which is so widespread in the United States is also to be found in other countries, and under other conditions and in France perhaps is the issue most sharply defined at the present time.

Notwithstanding the fact that for centuries the educational ideals of France had been closely dependent upon the classic tradition, and that the very genius of the French people was the undeniable result of their rich heritage from the Mediterranean civilizations of the past, some years ago the modern cry for efficiency and preparation for life was raised, the old system of education was sharply criticized, and a revision of educational theories was demanded. Gaston Paris, the great French philologist, had written: "For a nation like our own, whose glory is intellectual as much as military and political, there would be a very great danger, a veritable humiliation, if it should say, I am going to renounce my educational traditions, I am going to abandon Greek and Latin, I am going to devote myself to the modern languages, and to the sciences."² There were many who agreed with him, but all to no avail. The demand for revision was too insistent to be ignored, and a national commission was appointed in 1899 to study the question. Finally after much debate in the Chamber of Deputies, and a flood of articles in the newspapers and reviews, a new program of study was adopted for the secondary schools, or *lycées*, which satisfied the opponents of the classics, and which was intended to provide a system more in harmony with the needs of modern society.

This new program went into effect in 1902. A decade previously, in 1891, an attempt had been made to meet modern

¹ Read at the Classical Conference at Ann Arbor, Michigan, March 29, 1912.

² *Bulletin de la Ligue pour la culture fr.*, December, 1911, p. 8.

demands by creating, in addition to the classical course of study, a modern course with more practical ends. The modern course, however, had been poorly organized. It was installed in the same schools and conducted in the main by the same teachers; it was moreover of the same length as the classical course, and its aims were realized in a most unsatisfactory manner. While about 90 per cent of the students entering the classical course continued it to the end, a much smaller percentage of students finished the modern course, sometimes the number running as low as 8 per cent. It was the general conclusion that the creation of this modern course had merely served to disorganize the classical course, and that there was too great a gulf between the two.

The commission in its work preliminary to the law of 1902,¹ collected the ideas of hundreds of men of all classes—professors, men of letters, scientists, economists, members of local chambers of commerce, and in fact of all who had a reasonable opinion on the subject; their conclusions, practically unanimous, were as follows:

1. The classical course should be more than ever reserved for an élite. Such instruction should be strengthened on its scientific as well as on its literary side. No incompatibility was seen to exist between these two lines of study when properly developed, and it was the opinion that literary studies should not be abandoned too early, as it was a constant fact that the most successful students in the higher technical schools were those who had a broad foundation of liberal study.

2. It was agreed that for the greater number of students a course of study was needed which should prepare more quickly for actual life and which should be short enough to permit them to have some actual contact with the trade or business they were to follow, before the period of military service began.

Such then were the ideas of 95 per cent of those whose opinions were asked by the commission. In the face of this testimony, however, the commission decided that such an educational scheme, which provided a thorough classical training for the intellectual

¹ See *L'Anarchie scolaire*, par Henri Joly, membre de l'Académie des sciences morales et politiques, *Revue des deux mondes*, February 15, 1912, p. 895.

few only and nothing but a short, practical course the greatfor mass of students, was undemocratic and not in harmony with the spirit of a great republic where there should be equal opportunity for all. Consequently a plan was devised whereby four groups, or courses, were created, the Latin-Greek, the Latin-scientific, the Latin-modern-language, and the modern-language-scientific course. By means of these four groups it was hoped to give a certain elasticity to the whole educational system, and to make it possible for the student who had entered upon a purely practical course such as that provided by the modern-language-scientific group, to alter his course, and finally emerge among the élite in the Latin-Greek course, if his tastes and inclinations should finally lead him in that direction. No one could deny that the fundamental idea of this arrangement was admirable, but doubts were expressed as to the practical results to be obtained by it.

Today, this four-group system has been on trial for a decade. As might be expected, students have flocked to the so-called modern groups, and classical study has been neglected; for all four groups were put upon an equal basis, and parents and students alike have been influenced by the familiar appeal to prepare for practical life in a practical way. If this were all, however, the arguments of those who condemn the new education, and seek to restore the old, would have but a sentimental value. But this is not all, for the results obtained from the new system are generally held to be inferior. Students are found to lack the ability to think, write, and speak as clearly as under the old system, and on the other hand are but imperfectly supplied with the concrete facts which the new system had been called upon to exploit. The limited curriculum and the continuity of study which characterized a classical training had enabled students to think consecutively, had cultivated the power of expression, and had developed a discriminating taste; whereas the crowded program of the modern course, depending largely upon the memory, produced too often an ill-assorted, ill-digested jumble of half-truths and vague information.

As this situation became clearly defined, a storm of protest arose, and an organized opposition was the result. Foremost in this opposition is a society calling itself *La Ligue pour la culture*

française, which roughly translated means "The League for French Culture." Its president is Jean Richepin, a member of the French Academy, and upon its committees are to be found all but four of his colleagues in that distinguished body, as well as scores of members of the other learned academies. The directors of the great Parisian newspapers, and of the leading French reviews, as well as the editors of the leading provincial papers, are all supporting the League.

In the manifesto published in the first bulletin issued by this society last December, Richepin calls upon all who are interested in the maintenance of national standards, to rally to the support of an educational idea which an ill-advised public opinion is seeking to discredit. The substance of his argument is contained in the two following statements:

1. There is no conflict between scientific culture and the humanities, for the latter, far from being a mere vain school of elegance, constitute the very best discipline for the mind.
2. There is no antagonism between the humanities and modern society, which, for its continued progress, demands an intellectual élite from which to draw its leaders. Furthermore, the richest source of supply for this élite is to be found in the mass of the people, if a way can be found to make the humanities accessible to it.

A particularly interesting feature of this situation is the fact that many have predicted that the League could not undertake an educational campaign of the kind indicated without being influenced to a certain extent by political considerations. This prediction seems to be warranted by the fact that many have criticized the four-group system with its widely heralded democratic ideals as a political move pure and simple, designed to please the masses and to increase the power of a radical government. Many are inclined to believe that under these circumstances the attempt to restore classical training to its old position of honor is likewise a political move, fostered by conservatives and reactionaries.

The League, however, declares itself as absolutely unpartisan, and as influenced solely by large considerations which are vital to the welfare of the whole people. In support of this contention it has only to point to the varied character of its membership and

to the widely scattered sources of the present dissatisfaction with the existing educational system. The League, in truth, seems to be what it claims to be, a permanent organization by means of which all those now interested in an educational reform may work together.

A few facts will serve to show how widespread this movement has become. In 1910 a committee representing the iron founders of France sent a communication to the minister of public education in which they expressed their disapproval of the four-group system, complaining that the intellectual training of the young engineers whom they were forced to employ was woefully inadequate. Quite recently an open letter signed by 223 students in Paris, representing literary, scientific, and legal study, was addressed to the minister of education, criticizing the existing order. In this letter the students make the following statements: The present system of instruction lacks unity, not only in method, but in its program of study. Latin, which was formerly the center of secondary studies, has lost its preponderance, nor does it seem that the other branches of instruction have profited thereby. The study of French has declined to such a point that among us many graduates lack the most elementary knowledge of literature and of grammar. As for the modern languages, the direct method has been abused to so great an extent that the majority of us have ended our studies without having read a single drama by Goethe or Shakespeare. If in history, mathematics, and geography the results have been generally satisfactory, we have, on the other hand, received at too early a stage notions concerning physics, chemistry, and natural history, which have been necessarily fragmentary and superficial, and which have been a mere exercise in memory. In a word, we have been furnished an abundance of scattered material but not the instrument necessary to co-ordinate it and derive a profit from it.

In addition to this testimony, similar views have been incorporated in resolutions adopted by the Fifth Congress of the Union nationale des étudiants de France, the Association corporative des étudiants en médecine, the law students of the Faculté de Poitiers, and the Société de médecine de Paris. Eighteen provincial academies are likewise supporting the movement, as well as the chambers of commerce in Paris, Lyons, Épinal, and Nevers.

The one particular fact which seems to have precipitated this whole discussion is the growing inability of the rising generation to speak and write French correctly. As is well known, if there is one thing upon which the French have prided themselves, it is the clarity of their language, and they have proudly said, "That which is not clear is not French," *Ce qui n'est pas clair, n'est pas français*. Their present consternation can, therefore, be easily imagined. The present moment, in all seriousness, is considered a critical period in the development of their language; they call it *la crise du français*, and the situation is being earnestly discussed everywhere, even in the columns of the humblest daily newspaper.

It must not be supposed, however, that this discussion is entirely one-sided, for the present educational system has distinguished champions like M. Croiset, dean of the Faculty of Letters of the Sorbonne, and a number of its professors, including well-known men like Lanson and Brunot. To defend their position, these men also have organized a society which is called the *Ligue pour la culture moderne*. They insist that a classical training is unnecessary and their attitude seems to be that the level of study must be lowered in order that a secondary education may be open to those for whom it is now impossible.

The *Ligue pour la culture française*, however, declares the present system a failure, cites figures to show that only 45 per cent of the candidates without Latin succeed in the examination for the Bachelor's degree while 76 per cent of those from the Latin-Greek group, and 72 per cent of those from the Latin-modern-language group are successful; and it asserts that the real need of a democracy is not a lowering of educational levels, but a plan whereby the mass of the people may have access to the highest culture.

Only time can tell which of these two educational ideals will in the end prevail, but the advocates of classical culture in this country can at least find encouragement in the brave fight which is now being made by their colleagues in France.

LEGISLATION FOR THE LAST THREE YEARS ON VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

RUPERT R. SIMPKINS
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The great development of the industries in modern times, bringing with it vast changes in economic and social conditions, has led to ever-increasing interest in industrial training. Not only among those engaged in educational pursuits has this new interest been growing in importance, but among the people as a whole there seems to be a growing demand that the common schools shall recognize and provide for this new economic and social need.

This demand has crystallized in many instances in legislation. Commissions have been provided to investigate the whole problem. Communities have been empowered or required to provide industrial education. State aid has been given with or without conditions.

A review of the legislation for the last three years may show the growing importance of this movement.

CONNECTICUT

The Law of 1909, chap. 85, authorizes and directs the State Board of Education to establish two schools. A maximum of \$50,000 annually may be expended by said board for their buildings, equipment, and maintenance. The local communities have no share in the control, but may contribute any sum, properly voted, to the enlargement of the school, or for the improvement of its efficiency.

Day, part-time, and evening classes are provided for, and the Board of Education is authorized to enter into arrangements with manufacturing and mechanical establishments.

It is provided that no person under fourteen shall be admitted, except that during vacations the board may admit such children.

INDIANA

The General Assembly in 1911 passed a special bill authorizing the city of Indianapolis to acquire the Winona Technical Institute.

Another act passed the same year directs the Governor to appoint a com-

mission of seven members "for the investigation of industrial and agricultural education." The commission is to investigate the needs of education in the different industries of Indiana, and to see how far their needs are met by existing institutions. The advisability of new forms of educational activity is to be considered. Education along industrial lines in other states and in foreign countries is to be investigated by means of printed reports and the testimony of experts. Hearings are to be held in at least five different communities and the testimony of those interested in the various industries taken. The report is to be sent to the legislature by January 1, 1913.

MAINE

The Laws of 1911, chap. 188, provide that the State Superintendent shall advise and aid in the introduction of industrial courses in free high schools and academies aided by the state. The act also provides for the introduction into all normal schools of courses in manual arts, domestic science, and agriculture, sufficient to enable the graduates to teach elementary courses. In one normal school the courses are to be extended so as to prepare special teachers in manual training, and in another to prepare special teachers in domestic science. For these two special courses \$4,000 annual expenditure is authorized in addition to other appropriations.

Whenever any elementary school provides instruction in manual training and domestic science that satisfies the requirement of the State Superintendent, two-thirds of the cost of said instruction shall be paid by the state, up to \$800 for each instructor. Two-thirds the cost of instruction shall be paid by the state also to any high school providing instruction in agriculture, mechanic arts, or domestic science, up to \$500 annually for each school. State aid is also given to evening schools which include in their course of study freehand or mechanical drawing, domestic science, or manual training, or the elements of the trades.

Any town may by vote require its School Committee to establish and maintain as a part of the public-school system a general industrial school, open to all children who have completed the elementary course, or who have attained the age of fifteen years, for the teaching of agriculture, household science, the mechanic arts, and the trades. Such schools must be supported by funds additional to the regular school fund, and the state will aid to the amount of two-thirds of the cost of instruction, up to \$2,000 annually for each town.

MARYLAND

The Laws of 1908, chap. 584, authorized the appointment of a Commission on Industrial Education to report to the legislature of 1910.

MASSACHUSETTS

Chap. 471 of the Laws of 1911 begins by recognizing and defining the following types of education and defining certain terms connected thereto:

vocational, industrial, agricultural, and household arts. The various kinds of schools are defined as a basis of receiving state aid.

The Board of Education is authorized to investigate and to aid in the introduction of these various kinds of education and to supervise and approve the schools where such instruction is offered. Day, part-time, and evening classes may be offered in certain of these schools so that "instruction in the principles and practice of the arts may go on together," but only those between fourteen and twenty-five may attend part-time classes, and only those over seventeen may attend the evening classes.

These schools, known as "independent industrial, agricultural, or household art schools," may be established by any city or town through its school committee, or through a special board of trustees elected by the town, known as the "local board of trustees for vocational education"; or may be established by districts composed of cities and towns through a board known as the "District Board for Vocational Education."

Children living in districts where such schools are not provided may ask the Board of Education to admit them to other schools and the town where the applicant resides shall pay the tuition and afterward be reimbursed in part by the state.

The state, in order to aid in the maintenance of approved schools of the above type and of independent agricultural schools, shall pay one-half the cost of maintenance. In the case of "agricultural departments" in high schools, the state shall pay two-thirds of the salary of instructors in such department.

MICHIGAN

Act 35, Laws of 1907, as amended by Acts of 1909, establishes county schools of agriculture, manual training, and domestic economy. Instruction is to be given in the elements of agriculture, farm accounts, manual training, and domestic economy. It provides for general supervision by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and for annual state aid equal to two-thirds of the local expenditure. Maximum aid to any one school, \$4,000.

Act 228, Laws of 1909, provides for a State Commission on Industrial Education, including elementary training in agriculture.

Act 22, Laws of 1911, empowers school districts to establish and maintain trade, vocational, industrial, marine, and manual-training schools, gymnasiums, and scholarships, and to accept gifts, legacies, and devise for the same. This, however, was in the nature of a local act, and was intended to give a certain city the right to accept a bequest which had been made to it.

Act 29, Laws of 1911, amends the law in regard to county schools of agriculture, the State Superintendent being allowed to approve two such schools in each county instead of one.

MINNESOTA

Laws of 1905, chap. 314, establish and provide for the organization and maintenance of county schools of agriculture and domestic science, create

county school boards of control, and provide state aid to not more than two schools. Instruction is to be given in agriculture, farm accounts, manual training and domestic economy.

The Laws of 1911 provide for the establishment and maintenance of departments of agriculture, manual training and domestic economy in state, high, graded, and consolidated schools; authorizing rural schools to become associated with such state, graded or high schools. State aid is given equal to twice the amount of local expenditure, the maximum annual aid to any one school being \$2,500. For 1911, as for 1910, \$25,000 was appropriated.

Instruction in the industrial department herein provided shall be free to all residents of this state. Where necessary to accommodate a reasonable number of boys and girls able to attend only in winter months, special classes shall be formed for them.

State aid to consolidated rural schools is provided and instruction in agriculture and home economics required.

The Laws of 1911, chap. 91, provide that any high or graded school, which shall maintain such a course as the High-School Board of this state shall prescribe in agriculture and either in home economics or in manual training, shall receive annually in addition to other aid the sum of \$1,000 for maintaining such industrial courses, to be paid from the appropriations made for state aid to high and graded schools. This aid shall not be paid to any school receiving aid under any other act, for the maintenance of industrial courses.

NEW YORK

The Law of 1910 authorizes the establishment by the local authorities in cities and union free school districts of general industrial schools for pupils who have completed the elementary-school course, or who have attained the age of fourteen years, of trade schools for pupils who have attained the age of sixteen years, and have completed either the elementary-school course, or the general industrial-school course, and of schools of agriculture, mechanic arts, and home making for pupils who have completed the elementary-school course, or who have attained the age of fourteen years. It also provides for an advisory board representing local trades, industries and occupations. The state grants an annual aid of \$500 for each approved general industrial school, trade school, or school of agriculture, mechanic arts, and home making maintained 38 weeks, employing one teacher, and having at least 25 pupils, and grants \$200 for each additional teacher.

The law provides also that industrial training shall be given in truant schools.

Thus there is a division of control and support between the state and local authorities, the state control however being limited to approval of course of study. It is important to note, too, that the law is permissive, and the initiative is to be taken by the local authorities.

NEW JERSEY

The Laws of 1908, chap. 55, establish and maintain summer courses of instruction in methods of teaching elementary agriculture, manual training, and home economics, and appropriates \$2,000 annually therefor.

The Laws of 1911 provide that a commission of education be appointed by the Governor for a term of five years. He is to have four assistant commissioners, one of whom is to devote his time to the inspection of industrial education, including agriculture.

NORTH DAKOTA

The last legislature passed a law that went into effect July 1, 1911, providing state aid for rural and graded schools. The graded schools are divided into two classes, both of which must include in their course of study a two-year high-school course as suggested by the State High-School Board as courses in domestic science, manual training, and elementary agriculture, and shall comply with such rules as may be established by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The rural schools are divided into two classes, both of which must include in their course of study elementary agriculture. To these four classes of schools are given annually by the state \$150, \$100, \$100, and \$50 respectively, upon compliance with certain conditions including the above. Further state aid is offered as a premium for consolidation.

The new law which will go into effect July 1, 1911, provides for the maintenance of agricultural, manual-training, and domestic-economy departments in high schools. Any state high school, graded or consolidated rural school having satisfactory rooms and equipment, and having shown itself fitted by location and otherwise to do agricultural work, may upon application to the High-School Board be designated to maintain an agricultural department.

Each of such schools shall employ trained instructors in agriculture, manual training, and domestic science (including cooking and sewing), and have connected therewith, so long as they shall enjoy the benefits of this act, a tract of land suitable for a school garden and purposes of demonstration, and containing not less than ten acres and located within one mile of school buildings.

Instruction in the industrial department herein provided shall be free to all residents of this state. Where necessary to accommodate a reasonable number of boys and girls able to attend only in the winter months special classes shall be formed for them.

Each of said schools shall receive state aid in the sum of \$2,500 and its proportionate share of all moneys appropriated by the national government for the teaching of elementary or secondary agriculture in the public or high schools of this state, but shall not participate in the state aid now being given to the state high schools. Not more than five schools shall be aided the first

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year, nor more than five be added to the list every two years thereafter. Provided that not more than one school in any county shall be added to the list of state schools receiving state aid under this act in any two years.

For the purpose of extending the teaching of agriculture, home economics, and manual training to pupils in rural schools, and for the purpose of extending the influence and supervision of state high or graded schools, one or more rural schools may become associated with any state high or graded school maintaining a department of agriculture, whether or not such high or graded school has been designated by the State Agricultural High-School Board to receive aid under the provisions of this act.

OHIO

The Laws of 1909 amending older laws authorize any board of education to establish and maintain manual-training, domestic-science, and commercial departments; and agricultural, industrial, vocational, and trade schools in connection with the public school system. No state aid is provided.

The Laws of 1910 provide that, in case the Board of Education of any school district establishes part-time day schools for the instruction of youths over fourteen years of age who are engaged in regular employment, such Board of Education is authorized to require all youths who have not satisfactorily completed the eighth grade of the elementary schools to continue their schooling until they are sixteen years of age; provided, however, that such youths, if they have been granted age and schooling certificates and are regularly employed, shall be required to attend school not to exceed eight hours a week between the hours of 8 A.M. and 5 P.M. during the school term. All youths between fourteen and sixteen years of age who are not employed shall be required to attend school the full time.

The Cahill Act of 1911 makes the teaching of agriculture mandatory in all of the schools of the state excepting in the cities. A second bill requires that all teachers in these schools must, after September, 1912, take an examination in agriculture.

OKLAHOMA

The Laws of 1908, chap. 109, put in force sec. 7, Art. 13 of the constitution, requiring the teaching of the elements of agriculture, horticulture, stock feeding, and domestic science in the common schools; creates a commission for agricultural and industrial education; provides for the establishment of departments of agricultural instruction in the state normal schools, and for the chair of agriculture for schools in the agricultural and mechanical college; and provides for the establishment and maintenance of agricultural schools of secondary grades in each supreme court judicial district with branch agricultural experiment stations and short courses for farmers in connection therewith.

PENNSYLVANIA

Pennsylvania has enacted a new school code, article 4 of which authorizes any board to "establish, equip, furnish, and maintain the following additional schools or departments for the education and recreation of persons residing in said district, which said additional schools or departments, when established, shall be an integral part of the public school district, and shall be so administered, namely: high schools, manual-training schools, vocational schools, domestic-science schools, kindergartens, libraries, museums, reading-rooms, gymnasiums, playgrounds, schools for blind, deaf, and mentally deficient, truant schools, parental schools, schools for adults, public lectures, together with such other schools or educational departments as they, in their wisdom, may see proper to establish."

Article 10 of the code directs the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to "appoint . . . one expert assistant in agricultural education, one expert assistant in industrial education, one expert assistant in drawing."

VERMONT

By an act, approved January 27, 1909, any high or grammar school whose course of study or outline of work in manual training has been approved by the State Superintendent of Education, may, upon application, be placed upon an approved list of schools maintaining manual-training departments. A school once entered upon such list may remain there and be entitled to state aid so long as the scope and character of its work are maintained in such a manner as to meet the approval of such superintendent.

Two or more towns may unite as a district for the maintenance of the industrial schools provided for in the preceding section, but no such district should be created without the approval of the superintendent of education.

WISCONSIN

The Laws of 1911, chap. 616, create a state board of industrial education. The board shall consist of six appointive members three of whom shall be employers of labor, and three of whom shall be skilled employees. The State Superintendent of Education and the dean of the Extension Department and the dean of the College of Engineering of the University of Wisconsin shall be ex-officio members. This board controls all state aid given under this act, meets quarterly, and at such other times as may be found necessary and reports biennially.

The State Superintendent shall appoint an assistant in the Department of Public Instruction to be known as the Assistant for Industrial Education. He shall, with the advice, consent, and direction of the State Superintendent of Education have general supervision over the public industrial schools, and over all public evening schools, continuation schools, and commercial schools created under this act. The State Superintendent of Education shall have, in

addition to the Assistant for Industrial Education, such other assistants as he shall deem necessary for work in the same general field.

The Assistant shall have all necessary expenses to attend conventions and make investigations, within or outside of the state, when such expenses shall have been previously authorized by the State Superintendent of Education.

Local boards of industrial education are created, mandatory in towns of over 5,000, and optional in towns of under 5,000, whose duty it shall be to foster and establish and maintain industrial, commercial, continuation, and evening schools. Existing schools of similar nature may be taken over and maintained by this board.

This board shall consist of five members, two employers, and two employees who shall be appointed by the local school board, and the superintendent of the city schools, or if there be none, the principal of the high school, or if there be neither superintendent nor principal, the president of the local school board.

If twenty-five or more qualified to attend, petition for industrial, commercial, continuation, or evening schools, the board shall establish them or provide other facilities. This local board with the co-operation of the State Board of Industrial Education, shall have general supervision of the instruction in these schools, and it has full power to appoint teachers and determine their qualifications, to purchase all machinery, tools, and supplies, to provide buildings and grounds, fix the levy for the industrial education, within the limit of one-half mill per year for all the schools created under this act.

The State Superintendent and State Board of Industrial Education shall approve the course of study. No city may receive over \$10,000 from the state funds for the purposes of this act, and state aid shall not be given to more than thirty schools. The state aids the school to the amount of one-half the annual expenditure subject to the above limitations, and provided further that no school receive more than \$3,000 in one year.

The Stout Institute, by this bill, passes into the ownership of the state, provided the trustees first clear it of all debts and incumbrances, and the State Board of Industrial Education is made ex-officio Board of Trustees of said Institute with authority to maintain and manage same.

Chap. 347 of the Act of 1911 provides in a quite detailed and comprehensive way for the apprenticeship of children. The contract or "indenture" must provide among other things, that not more than 55 hours per week shall be spent in work and instruction, and that at least 5 hours of the 55 shall be devoted to instruction. This instruction shall include instruction in English, in citizenship, business practice, physiology, hygiene, and the use of safety devices; and in such other branches as may be approved by the State Board of Industrial Education. The instruction may be given in a public school or in such other manner as may be approved by the local Board of Industrial Education, and if there be no local board, subject to the approval of the State Board of Industrial Education.

Chap. 554 of the Act of 1911 provides that no state aid shall be granted for instruction in agriculture, domestic economy, manual training, or industrial branches unless the salary paid to every teacher instructing in said subject be at least \$60 a month.

Chap. 660 amends the old law as follows: "Whenever any evening school, continuation classes, industrial school, or commercial school shall be established in any town, village or city in this state for minors between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, working under permit as now provided by law, every such child, residing within any town, village, or city in which any such school is established, shall attend such school not less than five hours per week for six months in each year, until such child becomes sixteen years of age, and every employer shall allow all minor employees over fourteen and under sixteen years of age a reduction in hours of work of not less than the number of hours the minor . . . is by this section required to attend school."

Of the six commissions provided for by legislative enactment within the last three years, all have submitted reports except Indiana, whose report is not yet due. Practically all the recommendations of the Wisconsin commission were enacted into the Laws of 1911. No legislation on industrial legislation has followed the report of the Maryland commission so far. It recommended: control of industrial education by the State Board of Education and county boards, with the addition of advisory boards of citizens; close co-operation with the home for work in mechanic arts, agriculture, and cooking in the rural schools, and advised against extending to the rural schools the industrial work which is practical and desirable in the city schools; that industrial training should begin after ordinary school work is fairly completed, but that vocational schools should be open to children of thirteen or fourteen years of age; that there should be industrial or vocational schools giving a better elementary-school provision for the vocational needs of those likely to enter industrial pursuits; that there should be continuation (evening) schools for children already at work during the day.

The recommendations of the New Jersey commission were in part enacted into law in the establishment of the "Commission of Education."

The report of the Maine commission was made in 1910, and some very important laws followed in 1911.

One of the recommendations of the Michigan commission was enacted into a law permitting local establishment of industrial departments. Among the other recommendations, fruitless so far, are the following: introduction into all the high schools of the state of courses in agriculture, manual training, and home economics; certification of agricultural and industrial teachers; state supervision of all agricultural and industrial courses in public schools; limited amount of state aid to trade and continuation schools, and to schools introducing high-school courses in agriculture and home economics.

DISCUSSION

REPLY TO PROFESSOR BAGLEY

What surprises me most in Professor Bagley's in the main courteous criticism of my paper is that it cites no other books or papers by chapter and verse, refers to no specific experiment, and, to my thinking, mentions no definite results achieved by the method to which he complains that I do injustice.¹ This generalized way of writing is entirely legitimate, but it hardly meets the challenge of a paper most of whose statements, right or wrong, are supported by references to volume and page. I have no doubt that my papers, like all works of fallible man, contain errors and inadvertences. But Professor Bagley does not help me to find, correct, and apologize for them. Even in so simple a matter as my alleged misrepresentation of his own opinions he withholds his aid. I referred to one or two arguments of his, by book and page, merely to illustrate in the concrete the kind of reasoning that I deprecate. I am still in doubt whether he thinks that I misrepresented those particular arguments or whether his point is that he has elsewhere expressed himself differently or more fully on the whole problem of the transference of discipline. In the first case, if he convicts me of substantive error, I will gladly apologize for my unintentional misapprehension. In the second case I can only reply that a paper on "The Case for the Classics" was obviously not an exhaustive monograph on the various views of the educational writers whose particular opinions or methods I opposed. It must have been clear to the intelligent reader that on pp. 607-8 I was merely satirizing by typical examples the quality of the arguments which many writers on education drew from the armory of experimental psychology for the attack on the traditional idea of the disciplinary value of the classics. To such authorities of the new "science" I opposed the long tradition of common-sense, represented by another typical list of names. It is open to Professor Bagley to argue that this was a shallow procedure, though of course I do not think so. But he really ought not to talk about a "code of honor." The implications of that and similar phrases which he employs have no application to rhetorical exaggerations of general propositions, or dogmatism in the affirmation of opinions, supposing my papers to exhibit these faults. It is no more a violation of the "code of honor" of loyal controversy to say that there are no "experiments that teach us anything about the higher mental processes which we cannot observe and infer by better and more natural methods," than it would be to affirm that the study of Latin

¹ *School Review*, May, 1912, pp. 343-46. The papers referred to were in the *School Review* for November, 1910 (pp. 585-617), and February, 1912 (pp. 73-80).

and Greek imparts no discipline that could not be better gained from other studies. The "code of honor" in controversy relates to intentional misrepresentation of individuals, and Professor Bagley ought not to have used that phrase without convicting me of such misrepresentation in particular cases. Even then it would be a harsh expression. The late Professor James Adam once dropped a "not" from one of my sentences and proceeded to assail the opinion thus attributed to me. I naturally protested, but I did not impute intention to him. And Professor Bagley, to judge from his final sentence, does not really mean to do so in my case. But his phrasing is unfortunate and makes it difficult to discuss any other issue. I must repeat, then, that when I have censured or satirized individuals I have tried to cite page and volume correctly. If in 119 crowded footnotes I have somewhere slipped into error, it is inadvertently, and I am ready to express regret as soon as the specific error is clearly pointed out.

Professor Bagley compliments my reading at the expense of my candor when he assumes that I deceive my public if I fail to mention any writer (e.g., Mark Twain) whom his reading suggests to him. He can hardly be serious in the suggestion that a cowardly prudence caused me to omit the name of William James from the list of those opposing the older dogma of formal discipline. But if he were, he would be sufficiently answered by a reference to my article on "The Equivocations of Pragmatism" in the *Dial* for November 1, 1907, where I write of Professor James's work in a style which those who do not believe in freedom of discussion might think unbecoming toward so great a man, but which is certainly not timid. My reason for not quoting James in the present connection is apparent from note 5 of "The Case for the Classics," where I say, "No rational advocate would now recommend either Latin or botany on the ground that it *exercises the memory*." I am not a specialist in recent psychological literature, and Professor Bagley may know of some later work of Professor James that has escaped me. I know in this matter only his experiments in memorizing verses in different languages, and, as the note already quoted shows, I did not regard the foolish argument that learning Greek and Latin paradigms strengthens the memory as relevant to the issue. I learned before graduating from college, and have taught my students for twenty-five years, that the total plasticity of memory is in the main determined for each individual by physiologically fixed limits,¹ and that therefore the true prudence of the conduct of the understanding, and the fundamental principle of educational economy, is not to spend the memory on useless things. If I had been writing on psychology and not "The Case for the Classics," I should have added that this problem of memory is far more complicated than it appears in Professor James's almost childishly simple experiments. Any thoughtful teacher of language who has observed his own

¹[Professor James could have found this where he found many things—in Emerson. See the essay on Memory from the lectures on "The Natural History of the Intellect" which Emerson gave at Harvard in 1870-71.]

memory and the memory of his students for twenty or thirty years would cheerfully engage to state three true propositions about memory and the association of ideas for every one that these experiments or any similar experiments known to me establish. The effect on one field of memory of exercise in another obviously depends mainly on the number of common elements. The first prerequisite of sound experimentation in this domain is a careful analysis of such elements; which would, however, require both more psychology and more knowledge of language than are usually available in the psychological laboratory. I cannot take space here to dwell on the neglect of these considerations in Professor James's experiments. But here is one specimen of laboratory methods in these complicated questions for which I cannot at this moment cite the source. A German investigator argues that a determined or fettered association is quicker than a free or general one, as proved by the fact that the subject answers more quickly the question, "Name the first work of Goethe," than "Name a work of Goethe." How much common-sense does it require to perceive that this depends largely on the degree of the subject's familiarity with Goethe's life and works? One who knows them well might hesitate to choose and so delay the reaction. But what if he did not know them well? The limiting determination might then be a hindrance, while to the general question he would shout "*Faust*" at once. The fact is that an intelligent teacher of language and literature is trying better experiments in association and memory every day of his life than any that I have been able to find in the reports from the laboratories. And I expressly limited my skepticism to the higher mental processes. I neither affirm nor deny the contribution of laboratory experiment to our knowledge of the so-called lower or more elementary processes of mind or sense. For I do not know.

To all this Professor Bagley replies in the main with prophecy. Experimentation ought to, must, will, yield important results. Meanwhile it has clarified our ideas, and improved terminology, and the necessity for it is demonstrated by existing differences of opinion which can be settled in no other way. With prophecy I do not meddle. My point is that thus far experimental psychology has contributed *little* to educational theory in compensation for the confusion which it has introduced by its falsifying simplification of problems and conditions, and the overconfidence which its claim to the title of "science" inspires.

The clarification of ideas I admit for those who have no clear ideas on the subject without or in advance of experimentation. Anything that compels you to think about a question, however mechanically, may clarify your ideas. And so far as it clarifies ideas it might conceivably improve terminology. But Professor Bagley's anticipations of a psychological language defecated to a pure transparency from physical metaphor is a utopian illusion. The language of psychology will always prove equivocal under close scrutiny, because, as Spencer says, we are compelled to express mind in terms of matter and matter in terms of mind; or as Bergson would phrase it, we translate duration into

time, and time into space. The supposed overthrow of the "faculty psychology" has not appreciably lessened the convenience, perhaps the necessity, of speaking of faculties and mental powers. Spencer himself, anything but a faculty psychologist, repeatedly speaks of mental powers, sometimes without, sometimes with, the amplification, "those functions which are what we call faculties or mental powers."¹ These are the unavoidable compromises of thought with language, and the remedy is not the invention of new terminologies, but the skill of the writer to make his meaning clear by the context, and the intelligence of the reader to interpret the context as a whole. I do not, of course, intend to deny all possibility of improvement in the technical language of educational psychology. But here again Professor Bagley leaves me in the lurch. He denounces what seem to me necessary conventions and compromises of our present speech, but cites no specific improvement which we owe to experimentation. For I cannot recognize as such the simple phrases "concepts of method" and "ideals of procedure." Glancing at an earlier article in the same number of this journal by a distinguished professor of education, I find "ninety ability-atoms." But that does not seem to me any more free from physical metaphor than is "the reprehensible expression 'mental powers.'"

As for differences of opinion, opinions will continue to differ—but whether laboratory experiment has adjudicated or can adjudicate in these delicate matters is precisely the question at issue. Professor Bagley mentions two problems, the "spread of discipline," which being the very question in debate is inadmissible, and the presence in reflective thought of definite memory images. I have been interested in the second problem for thirty years and would welcome what I have not discovered—any enlightenment that I had not already found in Aristotle, Locke, Berkeley, Hume, the Mills, Schopenhauer, and Taine.

If, not finding what I seek in Professor Bagley's brief note, I turn again to the papers on the measurement of educational products, I am equally at a loss. It is quite true that education *en masse* requires the control of carefully kept records. I do not doubt that some profitable suggestions may be won from the study of the immense material accumulated in our school and college archives. An ideal marking system, if we could get it, would employ scales and measurements as precise as those of the physical sciences. These truisms and the prophecies of such a system make pleasant reading. But what is the present contribution of educational science to the establishment of such a scale? Why, this: By converting into absolute estimates the relative judgments of 200 educated men on six poor school-boy compositions, the compositions may be marked, in order of demerit, 26, 37, 47, 58, 67, 77. Assume, whether in the name of science or of common-sense, that the average judgment of 200 such experts is more likely to be right than that of the ordinary teacher. Grant further that the method of stating their resultant judgment here

¹ *Psychology*, Part VIII, chap. ii.

employed is more scientific than a mere average of 200 markings would be. We still ask, what possible bearing can this have on the real problems of the overworked teacher of English composition? Is he to submit his pupils' daily or weekly themes to a jury of 200? Or try to classify them by his own estimate of their resemblance to the marked samples supplied to him? Plainly he must mark them as best he may, with such intelligence as he possesses. The test of the new science of educational measurement would be to evolve from averages, statistics, or the laboratory, a guide, the study of which will profit the unhappy assistant in English more than an equal amount of time spent in improving his intelligence and extending his acquaintance with the English language and literature. When such a book appears I shall be happy to review it.

To conclude with one of Professor Bagley's minor complaints, I have no statistics as to the precise number of writers on education who in the past ten or fifteen years have used against Latin and algebra the argument that science has disproved the transference of discipline. My impression is that it is a large, perhaps an "overwhelming," majority.¹ I have quoted several. I can quote more if necessary. But I should like first to learn of a few who have never made any use of this argument. I have also an impression that in the last year or two there has been a tendency to "hedge" on this point. It would be unkind to press the query whether this is wholly due to an improvement in the methods of experimentation.

PAUL SHOREY

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THE STUDENT BOOK AGENT

Among the delights of the summer vacation there is one which deserves a far more considerable attention than it has hitherto obtained, and this is the book agent of an especial breed; namely, the college youth who is trying to earn a little spare cash, and who is doing his feeble best to inflict upon a suffering world another of those monstrosities which the subscription house manufactures for the gullible. No matter where the individual may attempt to secrete himself, it is a remarkable man or woman who escapes the appeal for one whole summer; and he is strong minded withal if he escapes yielding to the lure of the plausible, eloquent, or pitiful tale.

But the nuisance of the book agent is one long since pointed out and perennially squelched—in words. It is another phase of the question which I wish to call to mind; the effect of such work upon the mental and moral makeup of an otherwise promising young man or woman is not altogether to be ignored. Most of us know in general the sort of an appeal that is made: if the book itself

¹[This is certainly the impression which has somehow been given to the general public. As I revise this proof I note in the *London Times*' reprint of its letters on "Classics and the Average Boy," p. 7, this curt dismissal of the argument drawn from the disciplinary value of science and Latin: "Now it is a commonplace of psychology that this is not so."]

cannot command attention, lay emphasis on the fact that the sale of it is to warrant the return to complete the Senior year at college, or it is to insure the leisure necessary for adequate attention to studies. It's all very familiar. Perhaps, however, unless the actual experience has come to one, there is less familiarity with the artful coaching which the student has received at the hands of the general or territorial agent. It may not be so well known that the neophyte is carefully instructed to inject the personal touch in the patter which purports to outline the excellent qualities of the specific work. The clergyman and school teacher may or may not be aware that the boy before him has been instructed to make that particular sale, or, at any rate, obtain a written recommendation before proceeding to attack other persons of the community. It is possible that the guileless one believes that the very much reduced price—almost taking away the agent's commission—is a tribute to his position, or a subtle recognition of the importance of the learned professions, too frequently slighted by others. Unless the besieged one has had the experience or has been let into the confidence of an unpracticed salesman, the fact that this is all a part of campaign rules is likely to be overlooked.

It is time that people who ought to know better should take a hand in the elimination of some of the grosser frauds of this business. Everybody knows that the subscription book of customary vintage is an overpriced, low-valued piece of hack-work in by far the greater number of cases. One has but to recall what books were brought to one's attention the past summer, or those of the year before, to realize that most of the product of the subscription house is worthless stuff in content. Moreover, merely taking into consideration the workmanship, the book is a flashily contrived affair which is meant to catch the eye and make a sale with the unthinking or the soft-hearted. It is to be regretted that the reputable houses are not altogether guiltless in this field; but when one considers the professional subscription house, one can compare it only to the firm which makes a popular patent medicine. It is from the latter of these, moreover, that issue every year in May and June the recruiting agents to round up a horde of unsuspecting and impecunious boys and girls who will go out and do their best, if they do not become disgusted with the whole business, to dispose of numbers of "parlor ornaments."

Dispensing with further commiseration of ourselves and of those misguided individuals who squander their money on volumes rarely if ever to be opened, the effect of this whole system on a college boy is worth while considering. Let it be understood that I would not for a moment cast reflection upon the desire of a young man, or woman, to earn money to pursue an education; I examine merely this particular way of going about it. There are ways and means of adding to one's resources without putting oneself into such a position as to seem to plead for charity, and to produce, on the part of the other, the feeling that he is becoming, for the time being, a peculiar kind of an eleemosynary institution. That this is the case with the summertime student book agent few will deny. Such a course ought to be particularly repugnant to an Ameri-

can student, yet, when he gets a prospectus in his hands and a possible victim before him, all those teachings, and instincts as well, of self-reliance, of fair play, and of straightforward dealing seem to be shed as a cloak. He resorts to personal pleading, he interposes extraneous facts which do not bear on the transaction but which concern him merely as an individual; in short, he removes from the whole matter the characteristics of an economic process and lays himself open to the charge of being a respectable beggar.

If the agent warms up to the possibilities of his trade, and if he has been graduated from the school of a skilful director, he brings into play, not only the artifices which are looked upon as legitimate in the actual business world, but all those tricks which must, perforce, be debarred from real commercial transactions. The general agent sees to it that the weaknesses of the article to be sold shall be counterbalanced by an insidious tale of woe. How familiar it is to be greeted, as one comes to the door, with: "I have here a work in which I am sure you will be interested." And, before you are able to remark that you never use works in any form, follows the statement: "I come from Oklahoma, where I am a Junior in — College, and I am trying to earn some money to return to school next fall," etc.

It takes a hard heart and a firm conviction to dash the innocent hopes of the aspiring youth with a remark that you never buy subscription books, and that you think he might well have found some sort of occupation which would have left him at the end of the summer with probably as much actual cash as he is likely to obtain from this venture, and, what is far more important, with a sense of having spent three months in a really productive field, where personal humiliation does not accompany effort. For it cannot be other than that a fine-grained boy will experience constantly a sense of being in a false position; while he knows that the end in view is laudable, he also feels that he is losing something of the self-respect which is innate. The person with fine sensibilities cannot escape outraging that delicate sense of independence which is not at all divorced from a true appreciation of one's ties in society. If, by the end of the season, your agent has come to the point where he recounts with relish the various devices to which he resorted to make sales; if he has lost the inward shrinking which came when some word indicated that a favor was being bestowed, that charity was given with the purchase money of the article; if he has lost the delicacy of perception which gave him agonies during the first weeks, he goes into college in the fall less worthy than when he came out in the spring. If, on the other hand, all these qualms were lacking from the outset, there had been and there still is important work for his institution to do. It may be that he never can acquire the lacking quality, but, fortunately, there are few American born and bred boys of this kind.

Not only does the agent voluntarily and knowingly throw himself upon your generosity, but he will, in accordance with his instructions, stoop to actions nearly verging upon the mean. Last summer there infested the town from which I write a number of struggling student-agents, and among them was one

selling a many-volumed production the price of which came above twenty dollars. On being asked one day, after a sojourn of some two or three weeks, how sales were progressing, he replied that money seemed to be tight in the town. "But," he added to his questioner, "I'll be able to pay my board bill, for I shall sell a set to the landlady." The person in whom he so confided happened to be a woman with convictions, and this proposition was met with some well-chosen thoughts, expressed in concise terms, about young men who obtained board and room with a widow expecting cash remuneration, and who then tried to discharge the obligation by leaving some books which probably would never be used even were the whole action voluntary. Yet this fellow could point out that he had been instructed to meet his living expenses in this way. Moreover, he had been told that, although there might be some objection, a little argument about the necessity of saving money to go to school, and the hard time he had been having in town, would remove all opposition. To this very end he had been advised to find a boarding-place in a private family or family boarding-house, since hotel proprietors and clerks are not well or favorably known for their susceptibility under like circumstances.

Incidents to illustrate my thesis could be multiplied, but it is not illustration and proof that is demanded but merely a realization of the situation. Year after year students have betaken themselves to this "pleasant and remunerative" task, and in ever-increasing numbers, and those persons who might have stayed the tide have been content to speak a word about the general nuisance, and probably succumb if approached by one or more of these ambitious people. It would seem that there is an opportunity for the teacher in any sort of an institution to throw his influence against the taking-up of this work by any of his students. A word as to the attitude necessarily to be taken by the student book agent might save some boy from submitting himself to a blunting of his better self. Most budding agents are drawn into the work because it appears an opportunity to see some new region, and at the same time afford the chance of getting some money without hard work—but a disillusionment usually comes in this—and without soiling the hands—although a smirch may come within. The plea that this is the only kind of work that presents itself for the short season is patently without basis; it is in the winter that men are likely to be out of work; and if it be hard times with many men out of work, there will be little money to be spent for luxuries.

Again, it is perfectly justifiable to point out to the student that there is something dishonest in being the agent in a transaction where an inferior article is being disposed of at a high price. If an education does anything at all it surely ought to point out the ethical status of such a person. This whole question is not unrelated to the greater problem of inculcating a higher standard in all our economic life. It may be a little thing, but many little things count up.

FOREST GROVE, OREGON

LESTER BURRELL SHIPPEE

BOOK REVIEWS

The Eleventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II. *Agricultural Education.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1912. Pp. 113. \$0.75.

This work is no less valuable by reason of the fact that the names of none of the eight contributors to the discussion appear in the list of active members printed in the back. It is the complement of Part I, *Industrial Education: Typical Experiments Described and Interpreted*, referring, of course, to "city" industrial education. The author of every paper is engaged in some important agricultural work, in teaching or research; and the society did well in arranging the program that it did. The range of the discussion is best shown by the following list of topics treated: I, "The Training of Teachers for Secondary Courses in Agriculture," A. C. Monahan, United States Bureau of Education; II, "The Vocational Agricultural School," R. W. Stimson, agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education; III, "State-aided Departments of Agriculture in Public High Schools," D. J. Crosby, United States Department of Agriculture; IV, "High-School Agriculture without State Subsidy," Professor W. H. French, Michigan Agricultural College; V, "Short Courses and Extension Work in Agriculture for High Schools": (a) "In the South," H. F. Button, Manassas (Va.) Agricultural High School; (b) "In the North," F. R. Crane, now a student at the University of Wisconsin; VI, "In Public High Schools Should Agriculture Be Taught as Agriculture or as Applied Science?" (a) Professor W. R. Hart, Massachusetts Agricultural College, (b) Professor G. F. Warren, Cornell University.

The first article contains interesting tabulations of the opportunities for study offered by the colleges to prospective high-school teachers of agriculture. The second is mainly a restatement of the scheme elaborated in the *Report* of the Board of Education of Massachusetts, reviewed in this journal, December, 1911. The third article contains a concise summary of the present status of legislation and the requirements laid down by the state authorities regarding state aid for agriculture in the local high schools. Professor French gives a very brief survey of conditions in five states in which agriculture is supported only by local funds and presents certain advantages of this plan and of the half- and single-year courses used in most of the schools of those states. Director Button tells, in a way not without pathos and tinged with the romance of the heroic, of his efforts to carry the influence of his agricultural department into the country districts of Virginia, where the term is only five or six months long and the roads are unspeakably bad. The versatility of these activities in the face of innumerable hardships should put to shame the discontent of many teachers working amid bounteous and often overexpensive equipment. Mr. Crane describes the possibilities of work with the comparatively generous equipment like that possessed by the county agricultural schools of Wisconsin. The inference is that the plan outlined is based on his experience as principal of the oldest of these schools. The two divisions of the last topic are not antithetical. The first is an inquiry into fundamental con-

siderations on which all discussion must rest and states some of the complexities of the problem. The second is a short brief against the views held by most teachers of the special sciences.

C. H. ROBISON

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
UPPER MONTCLAIR, NEW JERSEY

Education for Citizenship. By GEORG KERSCHENSTEINER. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., 1911. Pp. xviii+133.

The Commercial Club of Chicago has rendered an important service to American education in its investigation into European schools. This is increased by the publication under the auspices of the first of Dr. Kerschesteiner's books to appear in English. The work of this significant educator has been reviewed in the *School Review* for March, 1908 (p. 344) and June, 1910 (p. 432).

The present work is an elaboration of the author's celebrated prize essay on "Civic Education." In eight chapters we are told of: "The Existing Opportunities: Their Development and Their Deficiencies"; "The Aim of Civic Education"; "The External Conditions"; "The Internal Conditions"; "The Scholastic Educative Forces"; "The Importance of Practical Work in School"; "The Non-Scholastic Educative Forces." The author's contributions to really democratic education have been excelled by none. He has acquainted himself with a wide range of efforts which relate school achievement to the foundation of productive work in civic, hygienic, and other forms of vocational or social activity. With these before him, he has met the needs of the youth of Munich upon an experimental and progressive basis.

The democratic interest of the writer is constantly in evidence. "Is it not strange that attendance at school up to the age of eighteen or nineteen is required from the small fraction of our people which is destined for the liberal professions, although they spring from families which possess both the means and the intellectual qualifications for accomplishing their educational duties, while we expose the overwhelming majority of their future fellow-voters to the unguarded dangers of everyday life when they are still little more than children?" "A large homogeneous mass of discontented people is dangerous only when the organization of the nation and of society makes a galley-slave even of the most efficient."

Dr. Kerschesteiner is ever at his best in his advocacy of "practical work." "Our public and private institutions, our curricula and time-tables, should be judged quite as much by their influence on the will as by their influence on the intellect." "The value of sterling work in the civic education of the mass of the people gains in prominence when we reflect that, for the majority of those leaving the primary schools, work must not only provide the principal means of educating the will but it also offers almost the only point of departure for the further development of the intellect, and with it, of all those traits of character that cannot properly be developed without insight into human life." "How then shall we approach the young citizen to develop in him a discerning altruism? To this question only one answer appears to me possible—at his work."

Workers in the fields of vocational, manual, moral, physical, and civic training will find this book filled with suggestions of interrelationships which, if taken account of in our present formative work on these lines, will save much waste and make for more adequate progress.

The Department of Education in the University of Manchester, 1890-1911. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911. Pp. 146. 1s. 6d. paper, 2s. 6d. cloth.

The foregoing numbers in this series have been Sadler's *Continuation Schools in England and Elsewhere*, Findlay's *The Demonstrative School's Record*, No. I, and Dodge's *The Teaching of History in Girls' Schools in North and Central Germany*. There are sections in this number on "University Day Training Colleges: Their Origin, Growth and Influence in English Education," by Dr. Sadler, and "The Department of Education in the University of Manchester" by W. T. Goode. An appendix contains a list of "Publications by Members (Staff and Students) of the Department of Education." There are also a "Register of Students Entered in the Department of Education since the Foundation in 1890" and rolls of the men and women students.

When so much of the record material of schools and colleges is brought out in cheap form largely for advertising purposes there is a certain satisfaction in finding a report which expects to have permanent value and is made up accordingly. The Department of Education at Manchester University commemorates its "coming of age" in the volume and the student of present-day educational problems will rejoice in the record of the past and the evidence of promise for the future. American educational influences have had a greater part possibly in the development of this department than in that of any other European educational institution. Among the photographs in the book the best known in America are Professors Sadler, Findlay, and Mark. Miss Burstall and Dr. Peter Sandiford are also members of the faculty. The two historical papers are very valuable. They are clear reports of important subjects. One wishes that it were possible to turn to equally full and authentic reports of various older ventures in educational organization and experiment.

FRANK A. MANNY

THE BALTIMORE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS

Apollo Collection of Songs for Male Voices. By F. E. CHAPMAN and C. E. WHITING. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1910. Pp. viii+264. \$1.00.

This collection well fulfils its avowed purpose of being intended for youths in preparatory schools, colleges, and glee clubs. It is most heartily to be commended for the broad scope of material—there are excellent unison songs, and choruses of almost every type which boys delight in—and for uniformly musicianly arrangements. The authors have done wisely in printing the tenor parts in the pitch at which they are actually sung, instead of the usual octave higher. The reviewer's only regret in going through the book is that the authors did not see fit to include a dozen of the best humorous songs, which give particular zest to the hearty singing of boys, and which are always welcomed by audiences in glee-club programs. In no department of songs for boys is there a greater need for setting a good standard than in humorous songs.

PETER W. DYKEMA

THE ETHICAL CULTURE SCHOOL NEW YORK

BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION

- Education: A First Book.* By EDWARD L. THORNDIKE. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. x+292. \$1.25 net.
- Outlines of the History of Education.* By WILLIAM B. ASPINWALL. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xxviii+195. \$0.80 net.
- Teachers College Contributions to Education. No. 46. *The Educational Theory and Practice of T. H. Green.* By ABBY PORTER LELAND. Pp. vi+62. \$0.75. No. 48. *The Question as a Measure of Efficiency in Instruction: A Critical Study of Classroom Practice.* By ROMIETT STEVENS. New York: Columbia University, 1912. Pp. vi+95. \$1.00 postpaid.
- Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June 30, 1911.* Vol. I. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1912. Pp. xviii+675.
- United States Bureau of Education Bulletins, 1912. No. 2, Whole Number 470. *Mathematics at West Point and Annapolis.* (International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics, The American Report, Committee No. XI.) Pp. 25. No. 3, Whole Number 471. *Report of the Committee on Uniform Records and Reports, Adopted by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, February 29, 1912.* Pp. 46. No. 4, Whole Number 472. *Mathematics in the Technical Secondary Schools in the United States.* (International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics, The American Report, Committee No. VI.) Pp. 35. No. 6, Whole Number 474. *Agricultural Education in Secondary Schools: Papers Read at the Second Annual Meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Agricultural Teaching, Columbus, Ohio, November, 14, 1911.* Pp. 53. No. 7, Whole Number 475. *Educational Status of Nursing.* By M. ADELAIDE NUTTING. Pp. 97. No. 8, Whole Number 476. *Peace Day (May 18): Suggestions and Material for Its Observance in the Schools.* Compiled by FANNIE FERN ANDREWS. Pp. 46. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1912.
- Health and Medical Inspection of School Children.* By WALTER S. CORNELL. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co., 1912. Pp. xiv+614. With 200 half-tone and line engravings. \$3.00 net.
- Necessary Basis of the Teacher's Tenure.* By ANDREW SLOAN DRAPER. Syracuse, N.Y.: C. W. Bardeen, 1912. Pp. 41.
- The Department Store and Its Opportunities for Boys and Young Men.* Boston: The Vocation Bureau, 1912. Pp. 97.
- Wage-Earning Occupations of Boys and Girls.* By E. W. WEAVER. New York: The Students' Aid Committee of the High School Teachers' Association. \$0.10.
- The Home University Library of Modern Knowledge. *The Problems of Philosophy.* By BERTRAND RUSSELL. *The School: An Introduction to the Study of Education.* By J. J. FINDLAY. *Landmarks in French Literature.* By G. L. STRACEY. *Rome.* By W. WARDE FOWLER. *The History of England: A Study in Political Evolution.* By A. F. POLLARD. *Canada.* By A. G. BRADLEY. *Peoples and*

Problems of India. By T. W. HOLDERNESS. *Anthropology.* By R. R. MARETT. *Architecture: An Introduction to the History and Theory of the Art of Building.* By W. R. LETHABY. New York: Henry Holt & Co. Each volume, pp. 256. \$0.50 net.

ENGLISH

- A Practical Training in English.* By H. A. KELLOW. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1912. Pp. 272.
- High School English, Book Two.* By A. R. BRUBACHER and DOROTHY E. SNYDER. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1912. Pp. 374. \$1.00.
- The Revised English Grammar: A New Edition of "The Elements of English Grammar," Based upon the Recommendations of the Committee on Grammatical Terminology.* By ALFRED S. WEST. Cambridge: The University Press (New York: Putnam), 1912. Pp. xii+336. \$0.60 net.
- The Utopia of Sir Thomas More.* Edited with Introduction, Notes and Glossary, by WILLIAM DALLAM ARMES. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. lxii+346. With a portrait. \$0.60.
- English Readings for Schools.* General Editor, Wilbur Lucius Cross. *Macaulay's Life of Johnson and Selections from Johnson's Writings.* Edited by CHESTER N. GREENOUGH. Pp. xlv+105. Illustrated. *Milton's L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Comus, and Lycidas.* Edited by MARTIN W. SAMPSON. Pp. xxxii+96. Illustrated. *Selections from Huxley.* Edited by C. ALPHONSO SMITH. Pp. xxviii+151. With a portrait. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1912.

LATIN AND GERMAN

- A First Year Latin Book.* By JOHN THOMPSON. Cambridge: The University Press (New York: Putnam), 1912. Pp. xviii+227. \$0.50 net.
- A First German Book on the Direct Method.* By G. T. UNGOED. Cambridge: The University Press (New York: Putnam), 1912. Pp. viii+177. \$0.80 net.
- Selections from Caesar.* Edited for Sight Translation in Secondary School by HARRY F. TOWLE and PAUL R. JENKS. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1912. Pp. xxxii+109. \$0.24.

MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE

- The Present Teaching of Mathematics in Germany.* By DAVID EUGENE SMITH, with the Co-operation of Various Graduate Students. (Teachers College Record, XIII, 2, March, 1912.) New York: Columbia University, 1912. Pp. 124. \$0.30.
- The Teaching of Physics for Purposes of General Education.* By C. RIBORG MANN. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xxvi+304. \$1.25 net.
- Non-Euclidean Geometry: A Critical and Historical Study of Its Development.* By ROBERT BONOLA. Authorized English Translation with Additional Appendices by H. S. CARSLAW, with an Introduction by FEDERIGO ENRIQUES. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co., 1912. Pp. xii+268. \$2.00 net.
- Waves of the Sea and Other Water Waves.* By VAUGHAN CORNISH. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. Pp. 374. With 50 photographs taken by the author.
- A Beginner's Star-Book: An Easy Guide to the Stars and to the Astronomical Uses of the Opera-Glass, the Field-Glass, and the Telescope.* By KELVIN MCKREADY. New York: Putnam, 1912. Pp. viii+148. With charts of the moon, tables of the planets, and star maps on a new plan, including 70 illustrations. \$2.50 net.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN

Librarian, School of Education, The University of Chicago

- (An) agricultural kindergarten. *Cur. Lit.* 52:413-15. (Ap. '12.)
 American School Hygiene Association. *J. of Educa.* (Bost.) 75:455-56.
 (25 Ap. '12.)
 ANDREWS, BENJAMIN R. The school of arts of Columbia University. *Sci.*
Am. 106:326-27. (13 Ap. '12.)
 AYDELOTTE, FRANK. English as training in thought. *Educa. R.* 43:354-77.
 (Ap. '12.)
 AYRES, LEONARD P. Measuring educational processes through educational
 results. *School R.* 20:300-9. (My. '12.)
 BLISS, HENRY E. Departmental libraries in universities and colleges. *Educa.*
R. 43:387-409. (Ap. '12.)
 BOUGHTON, ALICE C. Administration of school luncheons. *Psychol. Clinic*
 6:44-51. (Ap. '12.)
 BRYANT, LOUISE STEVENS. The school feeding movement. *Psychol. Clinic*
 6:29-43. (Ap. '12.)
 (The) camp fire girls of America and their aims. *R. of Rs.* 45:577-81. (My.
 '12.)
 (A) church play-garden. *Lit. D.* 44:887-88. (27 Ap. '12.)
 COOKE, FLORA J. Colonel Francis W. Parker: an interpretation. *El.*
School T. 12:397-420. (My. '12.)
 For a university of religion. *Lit. D.* 44:939-940. (4 My. '12.)
 FREEMAN, FRANK N. Current methods of teaching handwriting. *El. School*
T. 12:427-36. (My. '12.)
 FURST, CLYDE. Tests of college efficiency. *School R.* 20:320-34. (My. '12.)
 GAY, EDWIN F. Tests of college efficiency. *School R.* 20:335-38. (My. '12.)
 (The) geographical distribution of books. *Outl.* 101:14-15. (4 My. '12.)
 GRADENWITZ, ALFRED. A school for colonial science. *Sci. Am. Sup.* 73:232-
 33. (13 Ap. '12.)
 HENDERSON, WILSON H. Pre-vocational work a preventive of delinquency.
 The ounce of prevention. *Voca. Educa.* 1:332-43. (My. '12.)

¹ Abbreviations.—*Cur. Lit.*, Current Literature; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *English J.*, English Journal; *J. of Educa.* (Bost.), Journal of Education (Boston); *J. of Educa.* (Lond.), Journal of Education (London); *J. of Educa. Psychol.*, Journal of Educational Psychology; *Kind. R.*, Kindergarten Review; *Lit. D.*, Literary Digest; *Outl.*, Outlook; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *Psychol. Clinic*, Psychological Clinic; *R. of Rs.*, Review of Reviews; *School R.*, School Review; *School Sci. and Math.*, School Science and Mathematics; *School W.*, School World; *Sci. Am.*, Scientific American; *Voca. Educa.*, Vocational Education.

- HENIN, B. L. Jean Jacques Rousseau and physical education. *Educa.* 32:461-73. (Ap. '12.)
- HENRY, NORMAN E. School libraries. *Educa.* 32:474-77. (Ap. '12.)
- HILDRETH, HELEN R. Four months in a girls' trade school. *Voca. Educa.* 1:305-15. (My. '12.)
- HINES, L. N. A study in retardation. *J. of Educa. (Bost.)* 75:460-61. (25 Ap. '12.)
- HUDSON, J. H. A school camp in France. *School W.* 24:134-35. (Ap. '12.)
- JACKSON, C. M. On the improvement of medical teaching. *Science* 35:566-71. (12 Ap. '12.)
- JOHNSON, W. H. Reminiscences of a great educator. *Dial* 52:353-54. (1 My. '12.)
- JONES, ERNEST. Psycho-analysis and education: the value of sublimating processes for education and re-education. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 3:241-56. (My. '12.)
- KETCHAM, JOHN L. What teachers can do to aid industrial education. *Voca. Educa.* 1:344-50. (My. '12.)
- KEYSER, C. J. The humanization of the teaching of mathematics. *Science* 35:637-47. (26 Ap. '12.)
- LEAVITT, FRANK M. Vocational education in the Boston public schools. *Voca. Educa.* 1:316-31. (My. '12.)
- MCCRACKEN, ELIZABETH. American children. *Outl.* 100:925-35. (27 Ap. '12.)
- MANN, FRANK A. The arts in childhood. *Kind. M.* 22:579-84. (My. '12.)
- Mathematicians growing modest. *Lit. D.* 44:931-32. (4 My. '12.)
- MENZIES, ALAN W. C. General hygiene as a required college course. *Science* 35:609-12. (19 Ap. '12.)
- MONROE, WALTER S. Colburn on the teaching of arithmetic. *El. School T.* 12:421-26. (My. '12.)
- MONTESORI, MARIA. Disciplining children. *McClure* 39:95-102. (My. '12.)
- MOORE, CHARLES LEONARD. Do we know what we want in education? *Dial* 52:343-44. (1 My. '12.)
- Moving pictures in the classroom. *Lit. D.* 44:683-84. (6 Ap. '12.)
- Natural history in the Chicago schools. *R. of Rs.* 45:570. (My. '12.)
- OLDS, GEORGE D. The opportunity of the teacher in the class room. *School Sci. and Math.* 12:355-64. (My. '12.)
- OWEN, WILLIAM BISHOP. The opportunity of high-school English. *English J.* 1:193-202. (Ap. '12.)
- PATTISON, MARY. Domestic engineering. *Sci. Am.* 106:330-31. (13 Ap. '12.)
- PERRY, ARTHUR C., JR. Woman and "equal pay." *Educa. R.* 43:344-53. (Ap. '12.)
- PHILLIPS, D. E. The child versus promotion machinery. *Educa. R.* 43:336-43. (Ap. '12.)

- PHILLIPS, WILLIAM. Education in the new *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. J. of Educa. (Lond.) 44:281-82. (Ap. '12.)
- Plans for teaching journalism. Lit. D. 44:884-85. (27 Ap. '12.)
- READ, THOMAS T. University education in China. Pop. Sci. Mo. 80:441-48. (1 My. '12.)
- RIORDON, RAYMOND. Interlaken, an outdoor school where boys through their own efforts learn how to think and how to work. Craftsman 22:177-86. (My. '12.)
- RITCHIE, JOHN, JR. Shall my boy become an electrical engineer? Sci. Am. 106:408-9. (4 My. '12.)
- ROSE, MARY SCHWARTZ. The training of the school dietitian. Psychol. Clinic 6:52-55. (Ap. '12.)
- SARGENT, WALTER. Problems in the experimental pedagogy of drawing. J. of Educa. Psychol. 3:264-76. (My. '12.)
- School and college. Dial 52:341-43. (1 My. '12.)
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